

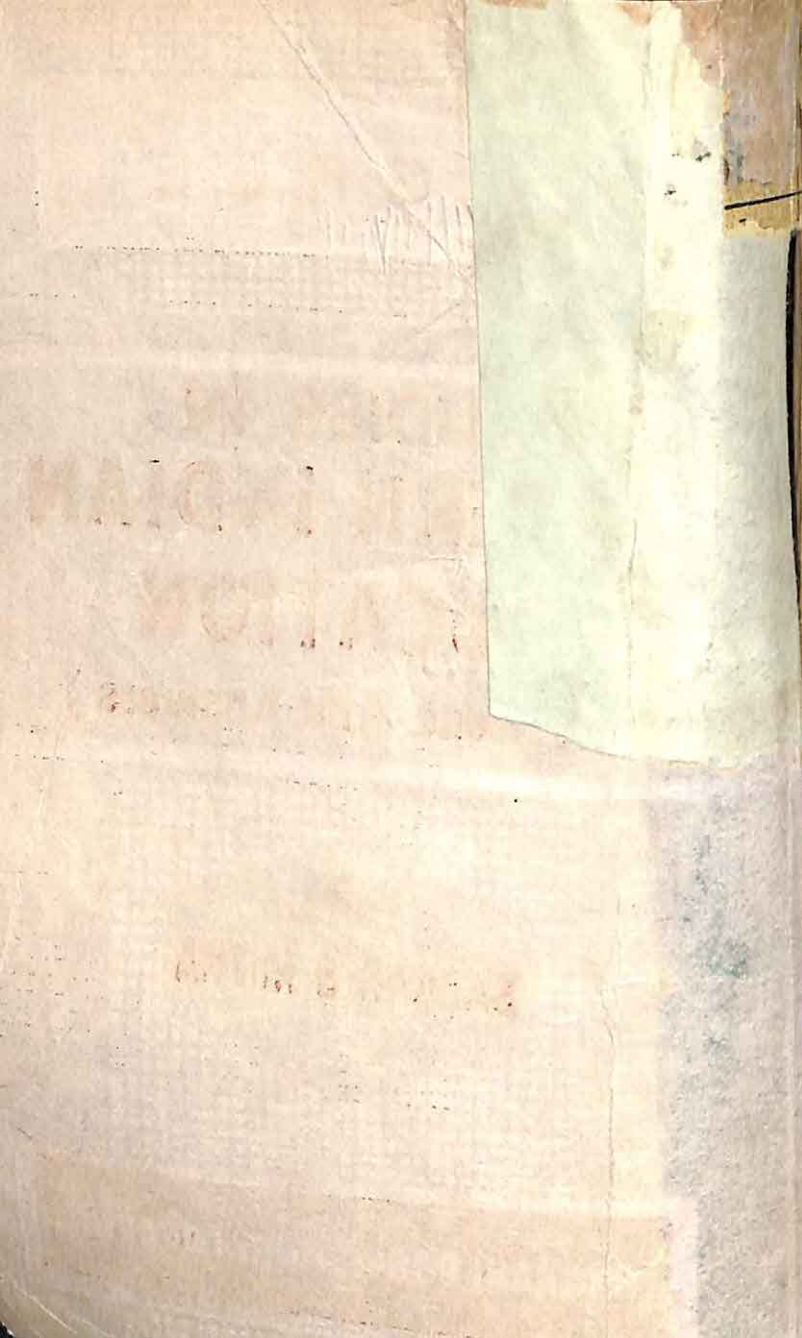
E G R E E

**STUDIES IN
MODERN INDIAN
EDUCATION**

[Questions And Answers]

Profs.
SARKAR & MITRA

HABANI PUBLISHING CONCERN



STUDIES IN MODERN INDIAN EDUCATION

QUESTIONS & ANSWERS

[THIRD PAPER]

An Indispensible Help Book for Degree Students
of

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Modern Constitutions ; Political Science (Theory
& Thought) ; Indian Government and Politics ;
Principles of Education ; Educational
Psychology etc ;

(REVISED & ENLARGED)

BHABANI PUBLISHING CONCERN

Publishers & Book-Sellers

1/H, Radhanath Mullick Lane,

Calcutta-700012



Published by :

Bana Behari Chakraborty

For Bhabani Publishing Concern

1/H, Radhanath Mullick Lane,

Calcutta-700012

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Access No. 9804

Price

RS. 50/-

Printed by :

Bagalamukhi Enterprise

22/B, Bethune Row

Calcutta-700 006

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STUDIES IN Modern Indian Education

CHAPTER 1

A BRIEF ACCOUNT OF THE PRESENT SYSTEM OF EDUCATION SINCE 1813

Q. 1. What were the types of education prevailing in India before India introduced a regular system of education?

Ans. The credit for introducing a regular system of education in India goes to the British. When the English set their foot in India the educational institutions were completely in private hands and the state had no control over them.

There were two types of educational institutions, namely, Pathshalas and Madrassas or Maqutabs. The former were attached to the religious institutions of the Hindus, and the latter were linked with the mosques. However, the system of education was imperfect and irregular. The state did not exercise any control over the sphere of education. The company did not also interfere in the field of education and allowed the existing system to operate unhindered.

Q. 2. When did the Company take the first formal step in the field of education in India?

Ans. The first formal step in the field of education in India was taken by the Company in 1781 with the setting up of a Madrasa at Calcutta. This institution was set up in order to train the sons of Muslim gentlemen to responsible offices in the State. This institution imparted instructions in subjects like theology, logic, rhetoric, grammar, law, natural philosophy, astronomy, geometry, arithmetic etc. In course of similar institutions were set up at Banaras to impart similar training to the sons of the Hindus. Sir William John established the Bengal Asiatic Society for the encouragement of historical researches in 1785. In Bengal, John Owen, the Chaplain of Bengal Presidency, made an effort to set up school for teaching English to the people. But his efforts proved fruitless.

During the time of renewal of Charter of the Company in

1792 the matter pertaining to education of Indians came up for discussion in the House of Commons. It was suggested that school masters and missionaries be sent to India for the purpose of imparting education to the Indians. Some of the members of the House of Commons maintained that the Hindus had 'as good a *system of faith and morals* as most people' and did not think it proper to impose any kind of learning other than their own. So, the idea of imparting education along English lines was abandoned.

Sometimes later Charles Grant, one of the Directors of the Company submitted a memorandum pleading for the teaching of English language to the people of India. In 1811, Lord Minto also criticised the prevailing educational system of India on the ground that it completely ignored science and literature.

The first important step in the direction of development of a regular system of education was taken up in 1813 when the Charter Act provided an amount of rupees one lakh per annum "for their revival and promotion of literature and the encouragement of the learned natives of India, and for the introduction and promotion of knowledge of science among the inhabitants of the British territories". But it was not clearly specified whether the money was to be spent for Western education or Indian education. Nor was it made clear whether the education was to be imparted through or vernacular language.

Q. 3. What was the controversy over the medium of instruction?

Ans. There was a controversy in the absence of clear indication as to the medium of education in India in Charles Act 1813. The Orientalists led by H. H. Wilson was in favour of introducing native type of education through vernacular. On the other hand, the Anglicists led by Macaulay forwarded the introduction of Western education through English medium. In view of this controversy no plans for development could be formulated and the amount provided under the Charles Act, 1813 continued to accumulate for almost two decades. The controversy was eventually

resolved by William Bentinck who accepted the view point of the Anglicists and introduced the Western type of education through English medium. In a resolution taken on 7th March, 1835 he declared, "the great objective of British Government ought to be the promotion of literature and science among the natives, and the funds appropriated for education should be best employed on education alone." This monumental decision of Sir William Bentinck went a long way in determining the educational system in India. It provided the basis for the present system of education, and proved beneficial in many ways "In the first place the introduction of English as *lingua franca* helped in fostering unity in the country. It also acquainted the Indians with the liberal and democratic thought of the West and helped in the evolution of a class of intellectuals who played a leading role in independence movement."

Q. 4. Why is it said that the modern system of education started in India since 1813? Explain with argument.

Ans. The Missionaries were not permitted to work in the field of education from 1793. The Charter Act of 1813 was promulgated and the Missionaries began their activities with renewed zeal. The Charter Act of 1813 provided for and demanded an official enterprise in education. Under this Act, a sum of rupees, one lakh was set 'apart annually', for revival and improvement of literature and the encouragement of the learned natives of India and for the introduction and promotion of knowledge in science among the inhabitants of the British Territory in India". From then on, the company had to shoulder the direct responsibility of educating the Indian people along with the British People. The company started a network of schools and colleges throughout its territory under its direct management and control. The educational clause of the Charter Act of 1823 is, therefore, regarded to have laid the foundation of a state system of education in India.

The Charter Act of 1813 had only provided a lump sum of money to be spent for the promotion of educational activities. But it did not indicate any specific or general

outline of programme and policy of education. As a result, no general policy was followed in spreading education through these schools and colleges. Till 1835, the Governmental system of education was organised in different States according to the local circumstances.

Q. 5. What role did the Christian Missionaries play for the development of modern education in India ?

Ans. The Christian Missionaries may be treated as pioneers in the field of education in modern India. They are believed to have arrived in India before the East India Company and started their initial campaign of propagating Christianity among the native Indians. Later, more of them came to India to look after the spiritual welfare of the officers of the East India Company. The activities of these Missionaries, in fact, took a wider form when the Company expressed its desire to spread Christianity among the Indians. They were also directed to open schools in the factories and garrisons to educate the children of the servants of the Company.

With this little encouragement, the Missionaries launched a systematic programme of education. It should be mentioned and remembered that at that time, in the early part of the 17th century neither the administration nor the people themselves were much interested in education. So, the initial programme of the Missionaries was chalked out with the specific aim of propagating Christianity among the Indians and bringing the natives 'from darkness to light'. With this end in view, they learnt local languages, and translated the Bible. For this, a little education was essential. So, they started schools for the Indians and begun to impart primary education. They settled in the interior parts of rural areas and became regular teachers. Their educational programme was obviously based on religion and philanthropy and was limited to primary education. As the villagers were extremely indigent, they had often to arrange free lodging and supply of books and slates to the students, and the education itself was essentially free.

Q. 6. What were the chief features of missionary education in India ?

Ans. The chief features of the Missionary education in India were as follows :

- (i) Vernacular was used as the medium of instruction.
- (ii) Religious instruction was compulsory.
- (iii) There were fixed hours of schooling.
- (iv) A wide curriculum was followed.
- (v) Separate classes under separate teachers were held and
- (vi) Education was primary and free.

It is interesting to note that although the religion was the chief objective of the missionaries, their relentless work for spreading religion developed a concrete form of primary education as an appendix to their main programme. As a matter of fact, the work of these missionaries may be taken as having initially contributed to the development of the present educational system in India. The activities of these missionaries did not spread through out India, but were continued mainly to Bengal, Bombay and Madras Presidencies and, to some extent, to Assam as well.

Q. 7. Discuss the activities of missionaries towards promotion of modern Indian education in the Presidencies of Bengal, Bombay and Madras.

Ans. The works done by the missionaries towards development of modern Indian Education in the Presidencies of Bengal, Bombay and Madras can be discussed as follows :

Bengal : After the East India Company had become the virtual rulers of the country, they extended a liberal patronage to the spread of education in Bengal Presidency. The Calcutta Free School Society was established in 1789 for educating the children of the Europeans in Calcutta. Still later, at the end of the 18th century three missionaries from England, Carey, Marshman and Ward settled at Serampore and started an effective and excellent educational work. They formed a good combination. William Carey was a propagandist, while Marshman and Ward were a school

teacher and a printer respectively. They set up a printing press at Serampore and published a number of books for school children. They were known as the 'Serampore Trio' and made excellent work on education and social welfare in and around Serampore. They also started several schools in Serampore and near Calcutta.

David Hare's name occupies a prominent position in the history of education in Bengal. He established two schools in Calcutta, one vernacular and the other English. The Church Missionary Society opened several schools at Burdwan and in its vicinity. To meet the dearth of school books, the Calcutta School Book Society was opened in 1817.

The educational activities of the missionaries thus gained momentum in and around Calcutta, Serampore and Burdwan in the Bengal Presidency.

Bombay : The earliest educational enterprise in Bombay Presidency was carried on by the Portuguese Missionaries. They started many schools and colleges in Bombay. Among them, mention may be made to Jesuits College, St. Anne's College at Bandra and another College at Monpacher.

After the expulsion of the Portuguese by the Marathas in 1739, much of the educational work was carried on by the Indian Christians. A school was opened for the education of poor protestant children, by Rev. Richard Cobbe. Subsequently, a number of different missionary organisations contributed much to the spread of education in Bombay. A substantial progress in the primary education in Bombay was achieved by the organisations which had come from different parts of Europe and America. Of them mention may be made of the London Missionary Society, the Scottish Missionary Society, the American Missionary Society and the Church Missionary Society. They worked during the period from 1814 to 1859.

Madras : The educational activities of the missionaries perhaps attained the highest degree in Madras Presidency. From the early part of the 18th century to the early 19th century, a series of schools, mostly elementary were opened by different missionary societies. Two Danish Missionaries,

Tiegeubalg and Plusschan, started a missionary centre at Tranguebar as a pioneer enterprise. They started a printing press and published books in Tamil Script. In 1683, they had founded the society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge (S.P.C.K.) with the collaboration of which they wanted to work. The S.P.C.K. under the patronage of the Government of Madras and with the permission of the East India Company's Court of Directors, started several schools in Madras Presidency. Later, the Danish missionaries also opened two charity schools. In 1727, a German missionary founded a church and two schools here.

Society from the propagation of Gospel was another society which worked in collaboration with the S. P. C. K. The Christian missionary, Frederick Schwarty, made a notable contribution to the spread of education by opening many schools in Madras, Cuddalore and Trichinopoly under the society.

Lady Campbell, the wife of the then Governor of Madras came forward to start the Female Orphan Assylum in 1736 by raising funds. Subsequently a Male Orphan Assylum was also started. Dr. Andrew Bell was its first Superintendent. It is interesting to remember his valuable contribution to the "monitorial system" in schools. Due to financial stringency he engaged the senior students in teaching the junior ones. This reduced the cost of management effectively. This monitorial system was also advocated in England and was eulogized and accepted in the elementary, educational programme there.

In 1805 the London Missionary Society started opening a number of schools in various parts of Madras Presidency. It is worth mentioning that the work of the missionaries in Madras was assisted by the finance and patronage of the Government. It paved the way, to a new system of education in South India, the effect of which can be well surmised from the present state of education in the different States of South India.

Q. 8. What was the role of the Christian Missionaries in the promotion of education in Assam ?

Or,

Give a critical estimate of the contribution of Christian Missions to education in Assam.

Ans. The missionaries in Assam arrived much later than the other parts of India such as Bengal, Bombay and Madras presidencies. Assam came under the East India Company's rule in 1826. So, she had much less opportunity of receiving missionary education than the other states. Still the missionaries made a noble contribution in the field of education in Assam. Dr. H. K. Borpujari made an unreserved eulogy of the activities of the Christian missionaries towards promotion of education in Assam in his work, "Assam in the days of the Company". He says, the Christian missionaries "espoused the cause of the vernacular of the people and made invaluable contribution to the Assamese language and literature."

The first missionary enterprise in Assam was the setting up of a branch of Serampore Missionary in Gauhati in 1829. The famous Serampore Trio—William Carey, Marshman and Ward—had earlier translated and published the Bible into Assamese with the help of a local scholar, Atmaram Sharam. They also published an Anglo-Assamese dictionary. In 1845, the first Baptist Church sent a mission led by Oliver Carter and Nathan Brown. They brought a printing press to Sadya. They started a number of schools in and around Sibsagar. The American Baptist Mission, Foreign Society Mission opened 14 schools. The American missionaries also opened centres at Guwahati, Shillong, Sibsagar, Nowgong and other places. At Nowgong an orphanage and a hospital were also started. They moved to the rural areas, taught Assamese, wrote books and disseminated knowledge among the rural people.

Several Welsh missionaries worked in the hill areas and set up many schools in the Khasi Jayantia Hills, the Garo Hills and Darrang and Nowgong districts.

Another missionary Rev. Dr. Brouson worked among the Nagas. He not only taught the three Rs. but also taught the Naga boys the technique of manufacturing tea and salt.

Besides opening elementary schools and spreading religion, the missionaries also established some high schools in order to impart higher education to the children.

The missionaries also published the first Assamese monthly "The Arunodaya". It "inspired the younger generation and paved the way to an intellectual awakening among the Assamese".

It can thus be seen that the missionaries laid a very strong and wide-spread foundation for education in Assam by covering the entire State and its hill areas by a network of schools. It is worth noting in this connection that East India Company had earlier encouraged the missionaries in their work. But from the later part of the 18th century, the company adopted the policy of religious non-interference and thereby its attitude towards the missionaries became indifferent. Ultimately, however, the Charter Act of 1813 included an educational clause which helped the missionaries much to further their educational campaign.

Q. 9. Summarise the educational achievement of the missionaries in Assam after Dr. H. K. Borpujari.

Ans. Dr. H. K. Borpujari sincerely eulogized the notable contribution made by the missionaries in the field of education in Assam in his work, "Assam in the days of the Company". According to him, they "espoused the cause of the vernacular of the people and made invaluable contributions to the Assamese language and literature".

"They taught the Bible in their schools, but espoused the cause of the vernacular of the people and made invaluable contributions to the Assamese language and literature. Brown Brouson and Farwell, the trio, laid the foundation of the Christian Assamese literature. Brouson's monumental work is an Assamese-English dictionary, the earliest of its kind till 1900. Brown translated the New testament into Assamese, wrote a grammar of the Assamese language and collected a fairly good number of Assamese manuscripts. Nidhi Levi is credited with a historical work, a number of story books and the translation of the Indian Penal Code into Assamese. To

crown all, the missionaries published in January, 1816, the *Arunodaya*, the first Assamese monthly devoted to religion, science and general intelligence. Disseminating western thought and learning "the *Arunodaya*", inspired the younger generation and paved the way for an intellectual awakening".

Q. 10. Present a brief Survey of the educational policies and activities of the East India Company in India prior to 1835.

Or

Discuss the educational policy of the East India Company during the time of Warren Hastings.

Ans. The East India Company came to India from England in 1660 A. D. At the very beginning they were traders, but ultimately, after the fall of Sirajuddoula, the Nawab of Bengal, they became the virtual rulers of the country. Not that they were very much interested in educating the Indians, but in order to maintain their administration they were normally required to meet two problems. *First*, they were to build up a clerk community from the local people to run the minor works, thereby reducing the heavy expenses in bringing assistants from England. *Secondly*, they were to arrange education for the children of their officers. These two factors necessitated a general programme of education. But as the company was not directly interested in the matter of education, it being not an affair of the Government, the programme was left to the missionaries. They, however, gave active encouragement to the latter. As first step, in 1677 Ralph Ord, an English school teacher, was brought to Madras for teaching the officers' children. Later, many schools were opened for this purpose and children of the influential Indian families were also admitted to these schools.

In 1698, under the renewed Charter of the Company, it was directed to open schools in the factories and garrisons. As a result, schools were established in the principal towns. Private schools were also encouraged by giving liberal grant. Since then a system of 'charity schools' was maintained throughout the territory of the Company. These were

started by grants from the Company and by donations from others. Funds were raised for erection of buildings for these schools and their occasional repairs were undertaken by the Company. The Company intended to maintain the tradition of the Mughal and Hindu rulers of giving patronage and marks of honour to the educational institutions.

An important step was advanced by Warren Hastings, the first Governor-General, by establishing the Calcutta Madrassah in 1781. Ten years later, Jonathon Dundan, Resident of Benaras, started the Benaras Sanskrit College. These institutions, in fact, trained the assistants to the judges in the Hindu and Muslim laws, so that they could be of help to the judges in the interpretations of those laws. These also kept the elite of the society satisfied. Thus the main educational activities of the Company till 1913 comprised of the running of the Calcutta Madrassah and the Benaras Sanskrit College, the establishment of schools for the children of the Company's staff and officers to give grants to private schools.

It is important to note here that from the middle of the 18th century, the East India Company adopted a policy of "religious neutrality". As a result, they gradually curtailed their benevolence to the missionaries in their religious-cum-educational programme. Ultimately, from 17-3 the missionaries were not permitted to work at all, till 1813, when the Charter Act was promulgated. The Charter Act of 1813 provided for and demanded an official enterprise in education. Under this Act, a sum of rupees one lakh was set apart annually, "for revival and improvement of literature and the encouragement of the learned natives of India and the introduction and promotion of a knowledge in science among the inhabitants of the British territories in India". From then on, the Company had to shoulder the direct responsibility of educating the Indian people along with the British people. The Company started a net-work of schools and colleges throughout its territory under its direct management and control. The educational clause of the Charter Act of 1813 is, therefore, regarded to have laid the foundation of a State System of Education in India.

The Charter Act of 1813 has only provided a lump sum of money to be spent for the promotion of educational activities. But it did not indicate any specific or general outline of programme and policy of education. As a result, no general policy was followed in spreading education through these schools and colleges. Various controversies arose on the aims and object medium and subject of instructions, agencies and method. This system continued till the forwarding of a Minute by Lord Macaulay, the then Law Member, in 1835. Till 1835, the Governmental system of education was organised in different States according to the local circumstances. Presidencywise activities are discussed below.

Madras: The education of the Indians in Madras Presidency made little progress even after the Charter Act of 1813. The main reasons of this set-back were the lack of interest of the Government and indignance of the local people. This was revealed in the report of an enquiry made by Thomas Munro in 1822. He submitted a scheme to the Company which proposed to give suitable grants to the Madras School Society to enable them to open one Hindu and one Muslim School and to publish the required books. The scheme cost Rs. 50,000-per annum and was accepted by the Court of Directors in 1828. But the scheme could not be ultimately operated to the desired extent; as the Court of Directors emphasised more on the English education than on spreading mass education. Even under these circumstances, 70 Teshildary Schools were opened.

Bengal: The educational activities of the East India Company was given a special importance in Bengal. In 1823 a General Committee of Public Instruction was appointed for Bengal by the Governor-General in Council. The financial grant under the Charter Act of 1813 was placed at the disposal of this committee. The committee consisted of ten European members. Most of them were in favour of promotion of oriental learning. Accordingly, they reoriented the activities of the Calcutta Madrassah and the Benaras Sanskrit College. Oriental scholars were engaged, books on Arabic and Sanskrit were published, and English books were

translated into Arabic and Sanskrit. Three Oriental Colleges were established in Calcutta, Delhi and Agra.

But the programme of the Committee received a stern opposition from Raja Rammohan Roy. He was against the promotion of only oriental languages and demanded inclusion of Mathematics, Natural Science, Anatomy, Chemistry and other useful sciences. He further recommended that the educational grant could be profitably utilised by employing local talents in western sciences and by establishing a science college with books, instruments and apparatus. The movement of Raja Rammohan gained momentum by a strong support from the general public, because English education was considered a passport for Company's services. The Committee had to yield to the public opinion and opened English classes in Calcutta Madrassah and Sanskrit College. The Court of Directors realised the importance of general English Education but they did not want to abandon the oriental language totally. As a result, the famous controversy between the Anglicists and the Classicists persisted in the Committee till Macaulay's Minute was accepted by Lord Bentinck in 1835.

Bombay : The Poona Sanskrit College was set up in 1821 in order to meet the demand of the influential section of the people. In 1823 the Bombay Native Education Society applied for grant-in-aid. They proposed to organise and extend native schools. But the Governor's Council was in favour of giving the facilities of better education to a few than a little to a good many. So the proposal of the Society was rejected. But the Company continued to give grants-in-aid to the Bombay Native Education Society and also to the Bombay Education Society for a limited programme of activities till 1833.

Assam : Assam had come under the rule of the East India Company in 1826. So, much educational development could not be achieved by the Company there. David Scott came to Assam as the agent of the East India Company. Government of Bengal sanctioned the opening of several schools in Assam. Under this scheme David Scott recruited many teachers. Each teacher would teach thirty students

and was given, in return, thirty *Puras* of land free of rent. A good number of schools were opened by Scott in this way till 1835.

The Anglicist-Classicist Controversy: The period from 1823 to 1835 was a period of controversy. Among the various issues, the issue on the arms of education faced an acute controversy which is popularly known as the "Anglicist-Classicist controversy". The Anglicists demanded spread of English the Classicists were in favour of education on oriental languages. As to the agency, one group favoured the employment of the missionaries and another group thought it wise to encourage the Indians themselves in opening educational institutions. A third group again was in favour of the Company's direct undertaking and management. In the method of education also, controversy persisted. One school of thought recommended education of the upper classes of people, by which process education would naturally 'filter down' to the masses. This was called the famous Downward Filtration Theory. This was opposed by the other school who was in favour of a direct treatment of the mass. Regarding medium too there were controversial views Oriental classic language, modern Indian languages and English were favoured by different groups.

These controversies were ultimately resolved after 1835 when Lord Bentinck accepted Macaulay's Minute and formed a new policy on Indian Education.

Q. 11. What were the main features of controversy between the Anglicists and Orientalists? How was this controversy resolved?

Or, What exactly was the bone of contention in the Anglicist-Classicist controversy? What are your views in the matter?

Ans. For an appraisal of the famous Anglicist-Classicist controversy, it is necessary to refer to the Charter Act of 1813 of the East India Company. Under the Act a sum of rupees one lakh was provided by the Company for the promotion of educational activities. It is important to refer to the

exact terms of the provision in order to understand the bond of contention precisely. It provided that "A sum of not less than one lakh of rupees in each year shall be set apart and applied to the revival and improvement of literature and the encouragement of the learned natives of India and for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of the British territories in India".

The Governor-General in Council started spending this amount in the educational programme. But the Act did not go beyond setting apart a lump sum of money and indicating in very general terms purpose of utilising the same. It did not indicate any specific outline of programme nor did it suggest in clear terms the details of implementing the educational programme. As an inevitable result, wide controversy arose on the issues of aim, agency, method and medium. The controversies are briefly discussed below :—

(a) *Aim* : There were three views on the aim of education to be followed. The first view was in favour of spreading English education together with the western science and culture. The second view stressed the need of spreading oriental languages and culture. The third view was in favour of giving general education to the Indians to make them suitable for government jobs.

(b) *Agency* : As to the agency, one group favoured the employment of missionaries, while a second group thought it wise to encourage the Indians themselves in organising educational institutions. A third group, again, was in favour of the Company's direct undertaking and management of the entire educational programme.

(c) *Method* : Controversy persisted in the method of education as well. One school of thought recommended education of the upper classes of people only, by which process education would naturally filter down to the mass. This would also obviate the need of spending money for educating the mass directly. This is known as the famous "Theory of Downward Filtration." This was strongly opposed by the other school which was in favour of a direct treatment of the mass.

(d) *Medium* : As regards medium of instruction there controversial views. One group favoured oriental classics like Sanskrit and Arabic, the second group stressed on a modern Indian language and the third group, English.

In 1823, the Governor-General in Council formed a General Committee of Publication. Management of all Government schools and one lakh of rupees set apart, were placed at the disposal of this Committee. The Committee consisted of ten European members with Lord Macaulay as President. Possibly one of the intentions of setting up this Committee was to resolve the various controversies and problems. But, instead of being resolved, the controversy centred round the object of education, and intensified. At first, the Committee spent the grant mainly towards the spreading of classical education. But soon public opinion grew in favour of English education. The contribution of Raja Rammohan Roy of Bengal in this direction is also significant. Very soon, the Committee itself divided into two distinct groups—one in favour of English education and the other in favour of oriental education. This dispute gave rise to the famous Anglicist-Classicist Controversy.

This controversy persisted for twelve years within and outside the Committee of Public Instruction. The orientlists argued that 'revival and improvement of literature' mainly referred to the classical literatures of the Hindus and Muslims prevailing in India. They further viewed that the term "learned natives" had a distinct significance. They must be persons well-versed in the culture of the East. Another point which was in favour of the group was that the Act provided for the "promotion of a knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of the British Territories in India." They argued that the Indians had a prejudice against European knowledge. So they should be taught sciences through the media of Sanskrit and Arabic.

The second group, viz, the Anglicists appeared to be more realistic. They viewed that the Company's cause and purpose would be better served by educating the upper classes of Indians in western education. They, accordingly,

be those Indian elites who were well versed in oriental literature and culture. The views of the Anglicists, however, appeared to be more realistic and natural because English was the language of the rulers and it was more convenient for them to take up the educational programme in their own way.

It is interesting to note that the two opponent parties in the Committee numbered exactly equal, *i.e.*, five in each group. Thus no final decision could be taken even by vote. Ultimately, therefore, this controversy appeared to be irreconcilable.

It was at this moment that Lord Macaulay was appointed the Law Member of the Governor-General's Executive Council. The paper containing the argument of the Classicists group was placed before him and he, in his capacity as Law Member, wrote a Minute on the 2nd February, 1835, in which he rebutted the arguments of the Classicists ably and gave an unreserved support to the Western Education. His recommendations were accepted by Lord Bentinck, the Governor-General. A new policy was laid down on Education in India, and the long standing controversy was thus resolved.

Q. 12. "The British administration in India has failed to create a national system of education for the country"—Do you agree? Give reasons for your answer.

Ans. The question of failure of the British administration in India had been, in the past, a controversial issue. Official historian claimed credit in favour of the British by citing the educational reforms made at different times starting from Lord Curzon's overall reforms. But the nationalists never agreed and they held an extremely opposite view that the British administration had ruined India culturally and spiritually by their incongruous educational plans. This dispute is, however, an issue of the past. It is now an admitted fact that the British educational plans were anything but national. The present educationists have striven now to ascertain the reasons of the failure, so that further mistake could be avoided. A survey of the history of education during the British

period reveals that the failure of the British to create national system of education was chiefly due to the following reasons :

1. *India—not treated as a nation* : The British came to India as rulers. India was regarded as their colony. They could hardly visualise Indians as an independent nation. They looked upon India as a land where they only extended their empire. The missionaries who came to India and took up certain educational programmes, treated India as a recruiting ground for Christianity. East India Company saw the land as a field of business and a source of profit. The Wood's Despatch of 1854 considered India as the source of raw materials or a market for the finished products of British industry. Lord Curzon regarded the people of India as "primitive peasantry content to raise their crops and rear the cattle and to leave all other things to the superior." He considered India an eternal field for the civilising influence of the British administrators. Thus the British could never visualise India as a sovereign nation and they were always guided by their imperialistic outlook. Under such an imperialistic philosophy, there was no scope of developing a national system of education.

2. *Discordance between East and West*—The second important reason of failure was that the British could not make proper harmony between the East and the West. Instead, they wanted to lay upon India, an incongruous ideal of the West. There were, however, a few orientalists who had an admiration for the Eastern culture. But they were outweighed by the 'True Britishers' who had an overzealous esteem for whatever was 'western', and this latter group was in official supremacy in formulating educational schemes. They had a great repugnance to everything what was 'native', and had a firm belief that "East is East and West is West, and never the twin shall meet." This attitude of aspersion to Indian people, Indian culture and Indian philosophy had grave effect. Not that the Western education would be harmful to India, it could be suitably harmonised with the Indian culture and tradition. But the supercilious outlook of the British Administrators led to a constant discontent of the

nationalist Indians. Instead of being receptive, they became hostile to the Western ideals and culture. Thus it is seen that never the British authorities made any attempt for a synthesis of the East and West. Instead, their action created an increasing ascerbity between the two nations. This created an undesirable atmosphere, where no good educational programme could succeed.

3. *Absence of a proper aim of education*—"Another very important reason for the failure is the inadequacy of aim in the educational plan formulated from time to time. Tracing the history, it can at once be seen that in all the educational reforms, attempts were made to make certain piecemeal changes will certain specific objectives. For example, Warren Hastings desired the political conciliation of those classes of people whom the British administration had deprived of political influence. The Chartered Act of 1813 sought for a revival of the 'oriental literature' and the encouragement of the 'learned natives'. The Despatch of 1854 intended a diffusion of the improved arts, science, philosophy and literature of Europe". Indian Education Commission of 1882 spoke nothing on the objective at all. Curzon wanted to remove 'the inherent defects of the Indian intellect.' The resolution of 1913 stated "the formation of character" as the objective. Thus, it is seen that the objective of education has all along been utilitarian. At first, the main objective was to Creatable assistants in their administration and this objective was more or less in view all through. Macaulay was first to strike a different note by intending to train Indians for self-government. But the officials in general were afraid that the people might demand 'Swaraj' if they were allowed to develop such an education. As such they continued to ring the old tune and made their best to avert such a demand by all means.

All these aims may have certain value of their own, but none of them alone, or taken together, can form an aim worthy of a national system of education. It is an admitted fact that a true educational system seeks to provide an "abundant life." Unless this is realised no amount of reform

will lead to success. This vital realisation was wanting in the educational schemes formulated by the British from time to time.

4. *Adoption of wrong method* : The harm done in the absence of adequate aims in education, was further aggravated by the adoption of certain wrong methods. *First*, the indigenous method and the indigenous institute were utterly neglected. *Secondly*, there was too much independence on English models. English ideals were imposed, which resulted, in a cheap imitation of the schemes taken up in England. The glaring difference of India from England, socially economically and geographically was neglected. The imposition of an incongruous English model on the Indian tradition and culture gave rise to a peculiar show of an Anglo-Indian outlook by a section of Indians. The British administrators took it for granted that the western model would serve as a panacea to all the evils of the backward natives. But they failed to realise that the model for an industrially developed country can never be suitable for an agricultural country. *Thirdly*, the Downward Filtration Theory adopted, was wrong in as much as it suspended for the time being, the spread of mass-education, which was so very important for a country backward in education. *Fourthly*, the adoption of English as the medium of instruction was also another blunder. The administrators did it with the hope that English would continue to be the national language. They could not visualise the future of India as a nation and so failed to look at matters from Indian point of view. This has resulted in a neglect of modern Indian languages, and a consequent hostility of the nationalist Indians. Rawlinson has aptly remarked that, "the failure of British rule in India, in so far as it is a failure, is due to a sheer want of imagination".

5. *Neglect of the socio-economic development* : Educational programmes cannot be dealt with in a watertight compartment, without having regard to the social and economic development of the country. The British administrations did it. They were completely indifferent to the social development of the country. Their doctrine of 'religious neutrality' ultimately kept them silent on the matter of social

reforms too. As a result, the social evils like, 'untouchability' 'child marriage' etc. have extended deep root in the society and remarkably hindered the educational advancement. The attitude of the British officials in this respect cannot be blamed, as they did not want to stir the hornet's nest. *Secondly*, a true educational programme should envisage a harmonious union of the various religions of the country. But this social unity was carefully averted by the British rulers. The reason is evident. Such a social solidarity would lead to the growth of a national consciousness and to a demand for political freedom. So instead of making an attempt to secure a social and communal harmony, the rulers continued to administer the 'divide and rule' policy tactfully. As a result, the policy of separate educational programmes for the Hindus and the Muslims—the two big communities continued to be followed. *Thirdly*, the British rulers paid little attention to the economic development of the country. Many of the plans and recommendations made during the period failed for want of adequate finance. The British rule for 150 years had undoubtedly increased the poverty of India. Under such an economic background no sound educational policy could be successful. Here also the reason is not far to seek. The British looked upon India as an everlasting source of revenue. They, therefore, could not afford to divert a major part of it towards education. That is why they did not look to the social and economic development of the country, without which a true national system of education was not possible.

6. *Want of necessary personnel*: Sri Gopal Krishna Gokhale remarked that the Indian Education Department practised a "narrow, bigotted and inefficient rule of experts". This may seem exaggeration to some. But in fact the Education Department, during the British regime, utterly lacked in efficient personnel for implementing a nation-wide programme of education. It was, however, a stupendous task. In that case a large number of educational experts of the first rank were required to be sent to India for their life-long service. But even if that was not possible, the number of first rate educationists was very small. The missionaries, however, sent a

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few leading educationists like Duff and Wilson. But the purpose of the missionaries themselves being primarily the spreading of Christianity, they played only a subsidiary role in Indian education. There were other leading personalities like Sir Sadler. But their proportion was so little as compared to the stream of officials coming from England that it was not possible to exert any influence on the set pattern of administration, or reforms made by the majority of officials. One of the reasons of lack of efficient personnel has been mentioned by Alexander Grant. He remarked that the conditions of service in the Education Department were not attractive to good officers. This is, however, a bare fact. Even with the creation of Indian Educational Service, the service conditions were far less attractive in comparison with those of the I.C.S., Judiciary and the Engineers. Secondly, education was never given the priority it deserved. The officers of the Education Department also did not receive the desired co-operation from the Administrative Department of the Government. They had to struggle hard against the stern indifference of the Finance Department. Had a closer, co-operation and sympathy come from two sister departments the position could have improved.

The causes of failure of the British administration in developing a national system of education have been adequately discussed. In fine, it can be said that the chief reason is the absence of any intention or zeal on the part of the British rulers to organise such a system. They came for a short stay, and wanted a complete and profitable utilisation of India's resources. To justify their administration they took up certain educational schemes, which were chiefly circumstantial—lacking in expensiveness and depth. No long range plan was thought of by the successive Governor-Generals who came in and went away after a scheduled number of years. Without a long range plan it was impossible to develop a national system of education. The brief and piecemeal plans and reforms had ultimately an adverse effect on the progress of education in the country.

Q. 13. Give a critical account of achievements in the field of education during the British period.

Ans. It is an admitted fact that the British administration failed to evolve a national system of education in India. But there were certain achievements which cannot be denied. The important achievements in the educational field during the British period are discussed below :

1. The British stressed on the use of English as the medium of instruction. As such, the modern Indian languages were neglected. But at the same time the missionaries and officials did a lot improve the Indian languages. It may sound paradoxical. But it is a fact that the missionaries studied the local languages, wrote grammars and other books on them. It cannot be denied that the first books in certain Indian languages were published by them. For example, the name of William Carey will ever be associated with the history of literature of Bengal. The name of Sir George Grearson on the Linguistic Survey of India cannot but be acknowledged with gratitude. It was the British people who first studied the language of the ab-origines in details. Although they made a halt in their attempts to improve the Indian languages, it cannot be denied that the initial enterprise came from the Europeans.

2. The introduction of English language in India had a beneficial effect. It brought home to the Indians the essence of industrial and scientific developments of the West, and their political and cultural aspects. This was perhaps required, for India at that period to reach a decadent stage in respect of her ancient science and culture. The introduction of the Western culture has thus resulted in a revival of the Indian culture in a new form. It thus prepared the ground of a Renaissance in Indian life so to say.

3. It cannot also be denied that a scientific and critical study of the oriental languages and of the ancient art and literature was possible due to the efforts of the European scholars. It is true that the indigenous 'Tols' and 'Pathshalas' provided such studies. But it cannot be denied that the system of study of the ancient literature in the Sanskrit

College or in the Universities, is much critical and scientific.

4. In the field of ancient art and architecture as well, the contribution of the Europeans cannot be disregarded. With the termination of the Mughal rule, the Indian architecture, which had reached a high degree of perfection, was going to turn into a symbol of decadent civilisation. But it was through the effort of Lord Curzon that the ancient monuments and structures were preserved till today. It was through the Archaeological Department created by the move of Lord Curzon that the ancient Indian paintings, sculptures and architecture were discovered and preserved. India, should, therefore, be grateful to the British for revival of her effete civilisation.

5. Indian education also owes to the British for her acquaintance with the modern law and medicine and the media of proper education like the library, cinema, radio, the press, museum etc.

6. The educational programmes taken up during the British period passed the way to education and emancipation of women which was eclipsed during the earlier period and to social education and social service. Western education is also responsible for removal of certain superstitions like, untouchability, 'Satidaha' etc. which were deep rooted in Indian society.

Without going into all the details of the British achievements it can be said that the several contributions enumerated above are adequate to show that the British rule was not wholly detrimental to India. Their cultural contribution will remain with us for all time to come.

Q. 14. Discuss whether the indigenous institutions could have been developed into national system of education in India by suitable extension and improvement.

Ans. The contributions of Indian private enterprise in the maintenance and expansion of indigenous educational system was significant. The number of schools was fairly high and there was no help or any grant from the Company. During the 18th and 19th centuries, the indigenous institu-

tions, both elementary and higher, were the chief educational enterprise in the rural areas. Sometimes, proposals were made for improvement of these schools. But they were ultimately ignored. The despatch of 1854 recommended that the Government should rely mainly on the private enterprise for the spread of education, particularly primary, and the private institutions should be given grants-in-aid. But the despatch of 1859 rang the opposite note and advised that for mass education Government should rely mainly on Government schools. The controversy was not resolved but the provinces were allowed to develop their programmes in their own lines. In fact, the Despatch of 1854 was not seriously followed. As a result, indigenous system received freedom and assistance. And as such the private efforts in all the fields marked an appreciable growth during the period from 1854 to 1882. The indigenous system of education could have been developed into a National system but the failure of the local bodies could not save the way. Moreover, the Hunter Commission, no doubt, pointed out the necessity of reforming the village schools with a very scanty Government contribution, instead of receiving the existing elementary schools. The potentiality of these institutions was neglected mainly owing to the general antipathy of the British officers towards all what was 'native'.

Q. 15. Why is the period between 1813 and 1833 important for Missionary educational enterprise in India ?

Ans. Following the policy of religious neutrality the Company gradually curtailed their benevolence to missionaries in their religious-cum-educational programme. The missionaries were not permitted to work at all till 1813 when the Charter Act was promulgated. From then on the missionaries began their educational activities till 1835 when a new policy on Indian education after Macaulay's Minute was adopted. The missionaries formed church Missionary Society and opened several schools in Bengal. In Bombay, the missionaries from Europe and America worked from 1814. In Madras the activities of the missionaries reached the highest degree. In 1829 a branch of Serampore Missionary was set up at Gauhati. The missionaries also published

the first Assamese monthly. 'The Arunodaya' which inspired the young generation. Thus, the period is greatly significant for missionaries activities in the field of education.

Q. 16. What do you mean by indigenous elementary schools in India ?

Ans. Indigenous elementary schools are those schools in which the instruction in the elements of knowledge was communicated. These were originated and supported by the natives themselves. These schools had no building of their own nor did they recommend any text-book for the pupils. The classes were held in the house of the teacher under a tree. The students used to bring slates and pencils with them. The number of pupils varied from 5 to 15. The indigenous elementary schools were the main agencies of education prior to 1882 and instructions in these schools were limited to three R's.

Q 17. Discuss what measures were adopted by the General Committee of Public Instruction of 1823 for the improvement of Sanskrit and Arabic literature in India.

Ans. In 1823, the Governor-General in Council formed a General Committee of Public Instruction. Management of all Government schools was placed at the hands of this Committee. One lakh of rupees was also placed at the disposal of this Committee. The Committee spent the grants mainly towards the spreading of classical education. But soon public opinion grew in favour of English education. The contribution of Raja Ram Mohan Roy of Bengal in this direction is also significant. Before long, the Committee itself was divided into two distinct groups—one in favour of English education and the other in favour of oriental education. This dispute gave rise to the famous Anglicist-classicist controversy. The controversy persisted for twelve years within and outside the committee of Public Instruction. The orientalists argued that revival and improvement of literature mainly referred to the classical literatures of the Hindus and Muslims prevailing in India. They further viewed that the term 'learned natives' had a distinct significance. They must be persons well-versed in culture of the East. Further, they

argued that the Indians had prejudice against European knowledge. So, they must be taught through the media of Sanskrit and Arabic. The Committee opened Madrasa and Sanskrit College in Calcutta. They also opened Benaras Sanskrit College and organised Oriental schools. Books on Arabic and Sanskrit were published. English books were translated into Arabic and Sanskrit. Three Oriental Colleges were established in Calcutta, Delhi and Agra.

Q. 18. Discuss the controversy regarding the medium of instruction in India during the early British Administration.

Ans. There were controversial views as regards medium of instruction. One group favoured Oriental classics like Sanskrit and Arabic while the second group stressed on a modern Indian language and third group rose in favour of English.

In 1823, the Government-General in council formed a General Committee of Public Instruction. Management of all Government schools and a sum of rupees one lakh were placed at the disposal of the committee. The committee spent the grant mainly towards the promotion of classical education. But soon public opinion grew in favour of English education. Very soon, the Committee itself was divided into distinct groups—one in favour of English education and the other in favour of oriental education. This dispute gave rise to the famous Anglicist-Classicist controversy. This controversy persisted for 12 years within and outside the Committee of Public Instruction. The orientalists argued that 'revival and improvement of literature' mainly referred to the classical literatures of the Hindus and the Muslims prevailing in India. Another point which was in favour of the group was that the Act provided for the 'promotion of a knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of the British territories in India'. They argued that they should be taught sciences through the Media of Sanskrit and Arabic. The Anglicists appeared to be more realistic. They viewed that the Company's cause and purpose would be better served by educating the upper classes of Indian people in western education. They strongly supported western education through the medium of English.

Q. 19. Discuss about the indigenous system of education in India during the rule of East India Company.

Ans. The indigenous elementary schools were the main agencies prior to 1882 and instructions in this institutions were limited the three R's.

These schools had no building of their own nor did they recommended any textbook for the pupils. The classes were held in the house of the teacher or under a tree. The students used to bring slates and pencils with them. The number of pupils varied from 5 to 15. The time and hours of instructions were adjusted to the requirement of the locality. In most cases girls and Harijans were excluded. The destitution (poverty) of the people under the British rule caused the decay in the indigenous system of education.

Some of the persons who steered the vehicle of education opined that if the upper classes of the society are educated it will gradually spread among the lower classes. Adam opposed this approach. He said unless the lower classes are educated education would never spread. He observed that indigenous schools are those schools in which the institution in the elements of knowledge is imparted. These schools were originated and supported by the natives themselves in order to spread education among the poor masses.

Q. 20. Describe briefly the spread of modern education in India by the Christian Missionaries during the later half of the 18th century.

Ans. A large number of schools, orphanages and colleges were started by different groups of the missionaries during the later half of the eighteenth century in Bengal, Bombay, Madras and in Assam as well. The work of the Danish Missionaries and the London Missionary Societies in Madras, and Bombay. the contribution of famous 'Serampore Trio' in Bengal and that of Brown, Brouson and Farwell in Assam shall be remembered in the history of education in India. The Calcutta Free School Society was established in 1789 for educating the children of Europeans in Calcutta. Still

later, at the close of the 18th century three missionaries—William Carey, Marshman and Ward known as Serampore Trio, started an effective and excellent educational framework. Lady Campbell, the wife of the then Governor of Madras came forward to start the Female Orphan Asylum in 1786 by raising funds. Dr. Andrew Bell was its first Superintendent. It is interesting to remember his valuable contribution of the 'monitorial system' in schools. Due to the financial stringency he engaged the senior students in teaching the junior ones. This effectively reduced the cost of management. The missionaries laid a very strong and wide-spread foundation of education in Assam by covering the hill areas and other parts of the State with a sound network of schools.

Q. 21. What do you know about 'monitorial system' in Indian education ?

Ans. Dr. Andrew Bell introduced the 'Monitorial System' in Indian schools. Due to financial difficulties he engaged senior students to teach the junior ones. This effectively reduced the cost of management. This monitorial system was also advocated in England and was anologised and accepted in the elementary educational programme there.

Q. 22. Answer the following by ticking 'Yes' or 'No'.

(a) There were no Pathsala Schools when the British first came to India. (Yes/No.)

(b) There was no controversy about the medium of instruction in India during the British administration. (Yes/No)

(c) Adam prepared the National Education Scheme in India in 1935. (Yes/No.)

(d) Nobody wanted Sanskrit and Arabic as media of instruction during the British rule. (Yes/No)

Ans. (a) No.

(b) No.

(c) No.

(d) No.

Q. 23. Fill up the blanks :

(a) Calcutta Madrassah was established in —.

(b) East India Company banned Missionary work in the year —.

(c) The Charter Act of Education was passed in the year —.

(d) The Missionaries published 'The Arunodaya' in —.

(e) The Assamese-English dictionary was published by Brouson in the year —.

Ans. (a) 1781; (b) 1793, (c) 1813; (d) 1846 and (e) 1900.

Q. 24. What should be the curriculum of Pre-primary education ?

Ans. To speak of curriculum which we generally understood, is not practically followed in the Pre-primary stage of education. But if we consider the making of curriculum in the wider sense, then it will be possible to prescribe the curriculum in the Pre-primary stage. Because there is almost no possibility of formulating traditional curriculum for the students of this stage. In this stage the curriculum must be based on activities. So the curriculum of the Pre-primary stage must be based on work education. Indian Education Commission (19964-66) clearly expressed that, "we can hardly talk about a curriculum for pre-primary schools; it is more appropriate to think of it as a programme of activities," the nature of activities may be of different types. Because there are different types of schools for pre-primary students. If we discuss the programmes of different pre-primary schools. We can get an idea of the curriculum of this stage of education. Though there is difference in curriculum followed in different types of pre-primary school, yet there are some general characteristics of this course of studies. These general characteristics can help us to make a clear idea about the curriculum of the Pre-primary stage of education.

Generally the following activities are included in the

curriculum of the pre-primary stage of education.

(a) *Physical development activities* : Different types of games, race, jump, dancing, musical dance, different types of exercise etc. are included in the curriculum of the pre-primary schools. The main objects of this type of curriculum is the physical development of the children.

(b) *Activities related to health* : The objects of these activities are to help the students to form health-habits. By these activities the children can perform the necessary works for their individual health. They became habituated to keep their hands, legs, noes, face etc. clean. Interest is also created among them to take care of their dress etc.

(c) *Activities related to environment* : The children naturally like some activities. They love to clean the floor, remove the dust from the room and other such activities. They take them as plays. This natural tendency of the children help them to form permanent habit to keep the environment congenial for health.

(d) *Activities related to senses* : The children can develop their senses for knowledge and senses for activities. This type of education help them to develop their creative ability. Drawing, painting, earthwork, paper-cutting, collection of pictures, making of different things with block's etc. are included in this type of education.

(e) *Observation of nature* : The students of pre-primary stage should be inspired to observe the nature with keen interest. They should be encouraged to study plants, birds, beasts and different natural phenomenon. The objects of such activities are to create scientific outlook about the nature.

(f) *Activities related to development of language* : The object of these activities is not to teach reading and writing to the students. Its main object is to develop readiness among the students. In other words, its aim is to develop such conditions among the students which will him them to understand easily the curriculum of the next stage of education. Conversation, story-telling, drama etc. are the

principal theme of these activities. The children also learn the alphabets mainly through shape and sound.

(g) *Activities related to arithmetic* : The object of this type of activity is not to teach arithmetic. But by this activity the children should be taught to be conscious about their future life. Rote counting, selection of definite number of objects, comparison between different things have, therefore, been included in the curriculum of the pre-primary stage. These activities help them to prepare for the next stage of education.

(h) *Activities related to the development of society* : These sort of activities help the children to adjust themselves with the social environment. The main object of this education is to develop in them sense of social duties and encourage them to live in groups. Playing in groups, to take tiffin in groups observation of birth-day of the students etc. are, therefore, included in the curriculum of the pre-primary education.

Generally the above mentioned activities are included in the curriculum of the pre-primary education. According to the Indian Education Commission the curriculum of this stage should never be rigid. The curriculum of this stage should be prescribed in such a way which will help them to be acquainted with the environment and at the same time satisfy their individual demands. With this object the Indian Education Commission has included the play activities, physical training, manual activities, handwork and creative work, learning activities, self-sacrifice activities etc. in the curriculum of the pre-primary stage.

Q. 25. Give an account of some of the modern system of pre-primary education.

Ans. In modern several systems of pre-primary education are prevalent all over the world. In 1944 the Sargent Report also admitted the importance of these system and recorded, "an adequate pre-primary instruction in the form of nursery schools classes is an essential adjunct to any national system of education." Some characteristics of the leading systems of pre-primary education are given below.

(a) *Kindergarten system*: Froebel was the founder of the Kindergarten system. It means the garden of the children. It is based on the principle of teaching children through play. According to Froebel the school is a garden, and the teacher as a gardener helps the human plants to grow to beauty and perfection. The object of the Kindergarten system is to give opportunity to the child for self-expression. It is also the responsibility of the teacher to acquaint himself with the innate tendencies of the child. The Kindergarten system gives joy, pleasure, freedom, peace—an atmosphere which fosters self-expression. Song, movement and construction are the essential means for the development of the natural activities and sense organs of the child. In this connection, we may also mention the importance of 'Mother's play and 'Nursery song's, 'Gifts' and 'Occupations'. Every song has three parts, viz., (a) a verse with accompanying music, (b) a motto for the guidance of mother or teacher and (a) a picture illustrating the song. Gifts encourage self-activity. They also help the development of the sense organs of the child occupations are closely related to the gifts. Occupations play an important part in the development of the physical and mental traits of the child.

(b) *Montessorie system*: According to Montessori, the principal aim of education is to develop the physical and intellectual faculties of the child in a perfect manner. Her system of education is psychological in nature. She considers education as a process of development. She also believes that the child should be allowed to enjoy freedom for the development of the inner tendencies.

Montessori system of school is popularly known as a 'children's house' where the atmosphere is suitable for the child to foster his individuality in the best possible manner. Many rooms and gardens are attached to this house. Children may play and take rest in the garden. The furniture and equipment of the children's house are specially made and designed for the use of children only. There is 'didactic apparatus' to bring about the intellectual development of the children. There is also 'Paedometer' in children's house for

measuring the height of the children. Montessori system of education has three essential methods which are as follows :

(i) *Motor education* : It gives an opportunity of the child to work for itself. Only motor education can bring about the physically developed personality of the child. The teacher should guide the children in a right manner, so that they may work and handle things properly and also manage the house and the garden.

(ii) *Sensory-education* : It is completed through didactic apparatus which consists of the following things : (a) Three sets of solid insets ; (b) Pink cubes and brown prisms ; (c) collection of various stuffs ; (d) two boxes, (d) two boxes each contains sixtyfour coloured tablets and (e) small wooden tablets.

(iii) *Language teaching* ; It consists of a desk, small balls and cards with letters pasted on them. In this way the child begins with reading and writing.

(c) *Nursery Schools* ; Nursery Schools first started in England. Two sisters named Margaret Macmillian and Rachel Macmillian started a nursery school in London. The school was started specially for the weaker section of the society. According to Rachel Macmillian, "Educate every child as if he were your own." In short, the sympathy for the children of the weaker section of the society was the real inspiration of starting such schools. Therefore, in such school different types of curriculum and method are followed in these schools. Even different types of curriculum is followed in different schools of the same country, not to speak of the different countries. The aim of this type of schools is to develop the total individuality of the children keeping an eye to their social environment.

(d) *Pre-Basic School* : Pre-Basic schools have been established in India which are based on the educational ideas of Mahatma Gandhi. These schools impart education to the children with a view to regulate their daily life. The teachers also try to teach them to acquire good habits. Self-restraint, self-confidence, discipline. They help the students to form such individual qualities like self-restraint, self-

confidence, discipline etc. These schools are simple in nature and have no fixed method of teaching. But the teachers are always eager to teach the students with a view to developing them good citizens.

There are also other types of schools for pre-primary students. Different schools follow different methods, but the main objects of the schools are to help the students to develop healthy habits and to adjust themselves with the existing social environments.

Q. 26. "Education means that process of development in which consists the passage of a human being from infancy to maturity, the process whereby he gradually adapts himself in various ways to his physical social and spiritual environment".
—Discuss.

Ans. According to Herbert Spenser, life is a continuous adjustment of the internal relations of the individual to the external relations of the world. Education, as growing out of life and needed for living, should also be considered as a process of adjustment of the individual to his environment. Educational growth at a particular stage must secure harmonious adjustment to the stage so that it may lead to further growth. Let us, therefore, consider education as adjustment. Education as adjustment signifies three things, the individual, his world or environment and the process of bringing them into harmonious relations. Let us consider the nature of the environment of the world. The world to which adjustment is to be made appears to be three, although in reality these are three in one or rather one and the same. We shall consider each of them separately.

First of all there is a physical environment, the world of nature. It surrounds us in unmistakable objectivity, contiguous in space material and tangible. It is not man made, it is given to man. While lower animals are compelled to accept the world of nature as they find it, man is amazingly dissatisfied with things as they are. In his attempt to conquer the world of nature, he discovers facts, records his observations, organises his knowledge, transforms resources into various articles of use and skilfully invents ways and

means to extend his power. Every domesticated plant and animal, every tool, every manufactured article, every work of art means the transformation of physical conditions, once hostile or indifferent to man. There is intimate relations between the physical environment and human life. So education should direct the individual efforts to explore and discover his physical environment, to have conceptional grasp of the typical aspects and phenomena of nature, to make himself at home in it. In other words, since the world of nature is essential and indispensable to the growth and welfare of man individually and collectively, education must secure adjustment to it

The Second World is the world of man, the social environment in which the individual lives. A modern society with the intricate inter-relations and complex structure is highly difficult to understand. Growing up in this changing and increasingly complex world, presents problem which must be solved. Traditions, customs, religion and ideals, different social institutions, and agencies and economic systems, vocation, clubs, associations, cultural heritage all exert a formative influence on the individual. His very growth is socially conditioned. From birth, one is a member of a group and must learn to get along with others. The great co-operative enterprise of civic, scientific or humanitarian character are indeed satisfying experiences. But they demand trained intelligence, sympathetic understanding and unfailing habits of social response. There is something even deeper than this. The social fabric originates in the inter-play of human impulses and aspirations and in the actions and conduct of man. The social organism lives and lives only within the experience of the individual. Roads and buildings, machines and tools, by themselves do not constitute civilised social life but the uses to which they are put in the interests of a truly shared life, constitute civilised living. There is need for learning the social uses of things of acquiring social efficiency. Moreover, man is heir to the social heritage. By participation, discovery and realisation, he should utilise his cultural inheritance. To maintain social heredity and continuity, conscious

and purposive adjustment to his social environment is necessity.

The Third World to which man's life is related to his spiritual environment or the world of morals and values, which lies within the mind of the individual. The instinctive and emotional impulses cognitive and executive abilities, aptitudes and temperament and such other inherited traits constitute his inner world. Conflicting impulses, divergent aspirations and discordant loyalties are at war within and this mental conflict always hampers successful external adjustment. So the crude impulses must be submitted and organised into healthy sentiments. The primitive pleasure-pain principle of conduct must give way to newly developed system of values. An orderly progress should be made towards the formation of an integrated personality and a wholesome character. A man is bound to be guided by his world-outlook which includes moral standards of good and evil. As one cannot think of a life without morality, adjustment to this world of morals or the spiritual environment must figure prominently in educational growth.

As we have already pointed out, the three world, so far discussed separately, are not separate entities. All the three are integrally inter-related. So far we have also discussed the world apart from the individual. As a point of departure, we shall now point out that they are one before they are two and not vice-versa. Experience is a unity in which the individual and his world occupy the subjective and objective poles and there is specific continuity between them.

Let us now consider the nature of adjustment itself. Adjustment, as we have seen, signifies the process of bringing the individual and his environment together and fitting them to each other. In the *first* place, adjustment is progressively extensive and intensive. As the child grows up from infancy to maturity, he comes in wider contact with persons and things, faces more and more life situations and the horizon of the three worlds begin to expand. At the same time there goes on constantly an intensive development. The same situation which he met earlier becomes more and more

meaningful. As he passes through successive stages of development, more intensive adjustments are to be made now. *Secondly*, adjustment is no way a blind process, a passive reception of, and adaptation to, environmental forces. The individual is an active participant in the happenings of life and his adjustment is conscious and purposive. *Thirdly*, adjustment is a double-edged process in which the individual wrestles with his environment and while he appropriates it, he also contributes to it, leaving it better than he found it. In other words, while adjusting, he modifies his own behaviour according to the demands of the situation and at the same time modifies the environment itself, as far as practicable, to suit his purposes. So adjustment of man as distinct from the lower animals is as much of active appropriation as of passive assimilation. We may call it superior adjustment. Thus, we come to the conclusion that education is a process whereby the individual, gradually and progressively, adjusts himself in various ways and in a superior manner to the inter-related world's of nature, man and morality. It is needless to point out that education thus conceived is as broad as life itself. It starts from infancy and continues up to the end. Education is a life long process, one without finality.

Q. 27. Discuss the scope of education.

Ans. The broader concept of education has in its turn widened the scope of education to an illimitable extent. Education in the conventional sense was equated with the acquisition of some specific knowledge, as skill and hence the scope of such education was restricted to the mere learning of some specialised modes of behaviour. Its area of activity was merely confined to the intellectual exercise of mind, the training in some specific ways of reaction and the perfecting of some specialised patterns of behaviour. The other vital aspect of the individual's growth was simply left out of programme.

But education in its true sense is identified with the very process of living. Anything related to the vital process of the child's growth is relevant to education. This fact makes the scope of education virtually limitless. It includes every new experience that the individual acquires. Every activity

performed, every knowledge gathered, every experience acquired comes within the scope of education. The entire phenomenon of the multiphased development of the individual comes within its purview. Consequently all behaviours of the individual physical or mental, conscious or unconscious overt or covert constitute the province of education.

In fact, the scope of education while taken in this progressive sense encompasses the entire range of diverse activities that man performs in his life. The enrichment of mind, the healthy development of the body, the integration of the various emotions and sentiments and the acquiring of the essential social behaviour pattern are some of the outstanding tasks that come within the scope of modern education. No longer the task of the educator is limited to mere filling in the vacuum of the child's mind with intellectual sand and mortar but it is also extended to such vital tasks as promoting the growth of the total personality, intimating him to the essential life experiences, infusing in the mind the spirit of the corporate life, enabling him to earn, social and vocational efficiency and building in him a progressive philosophy of life.

In short, the scope of modern education covers the following vital areas of the human life.

- (a) Physical Development—health education.
- (b) Intellectual Development—acquisition of knowledge and cultural heritage.
- (c) Social Development—Socialisation, Group-life and education for children.
- (d) Emotional integration and Personality Development.
- (e) Personal life—family and parenthood.
- (f) Vocation life—acquirement of skill and education for creativity.
- (g) Leisure time Occupation and Recreation.
- (h) Development of philosophy of life.

In conformity with the wider scope of modern education the schools of today are no longer the mere knowledge shops

of the past. Their functions do not end by simply hammering into the young heads some valuable knowledge and information but consists in an elaborate programme of promoting a balanced development of the physical, intellectual emotional and social aspects of his personality. It is why the curriculum of modern education comprises side by side with the study of the facts and theories, a wide range of active experiences called from real life of the child, such as social communications, creative efforts, games and sports, travelling, social and cultural gatherings and other types of collective activities. In short, the scope of modern education has assumed to such an enormous dimension that it covers to-day every bit of experience that the child gathers in every step of his life's walk.

Q. 28. Briefly discuss the different concept of education.

Ans. The general idea about what education actually means is called the "concept of education".

The history of education offers the following different concepts of education.

(a) *Educational growth by storage* : In this concept, the child's mind is looked upon as an empty warehouse which is to be generally filled up with knowledge or wisdom. Here knowledge is taken as the supreme element in education. This fact cannot be denied. But it is to be considered how far it is effective to blow in knowledge from outside into the empty mind. The perfectness of education lies in the active participation of the educand. Here the educator would only assist the pupil to develop his own intellect by arousing his interest and making him alive and responsive to his environments.

(b) *Education as a mental discipline* : In this concept, the human mind has been considered a faculty of certain powers, e.g., judgement, perception, understanding etc. A such, the educationists attempt towards a reformation of the mind by regular cultivation of knowledge would make the educand fit to grasp the different subject matter. Spencer holds that knowledge ultimately transforms into mental power. So different subject like language, mathematics etc.

have been introduced. It is also opined that exercise in mastering the hard subjects actuates the mental reformation.

(c) *Education as adjustment* : This concept of education is regarded as development of body and mind in harmony with the environment and circumstances. Since the day of his birth the child tends to fit the circumstances. As he grows, he realises the practical difficulty in living his own way and tries to mould himself to suit the social, natural and other environments. In the modern world, an individual finds that this adjustment in all spheres of life—social, political and cultural—is necessary.

(d) *Education as development* : Development has been regarded by some as one of the most brief synonyms of education. The word development means the fullest manifestation of the personality in a man, planned for the whole period of living. In this concept, education is viewed as a continuous process of steering the life to the goal of perfection by a proper assimilation of ever changing experience in life. A man tends to express himself in three different ways—physical, mental and spiritual. Education means a co-ordinate development of a man's faculty in these three spheres as mentioned above.

(e) *Education and training* : Education thus conceived by the progressive thinkers of to-day has thrown a great challenge to the age-old narrow practice of schooling or training that was thought to be education in the past. The process of schooling or training arduously practised in the traditional schools no doubt constitutes new experience of the learners. They sometimes, though not always, bring about the desired changes in the behaviour of the learner too. An individual who is stuffed with the various facts and figures undoubtedly gathers a wide range of knowledge about a good many things. The child who is taught how to exchange greetings with a guest in the house is trained in the desirable mode of social custom. A soldier who is taught how to shoot or dodge an enemy attack is similarly trained in the art of warfare. But these accomplishments will remain in the

form of sheer training if they fail to bring about the corresponding changes in the mental structure of the learner. They will be termed education only when their inner significance is realised and appreciated by the individual and the modification in his conceptional and emotional framework takes place. Hence training merely indicates change or modification in the external behaviour without corresponding effect or impact on the basic structure of the individual's mind. It is simply like a loose over-structure built upon the mental organisation that may come off any time. But true education not only brings about the desired change in the individual's behaviour but at the same time produces parallel changes in his very mental disposition also. Consequently, training, however, efficient, remains basically on the surface while education goes deep in the very foundation of the individual's personality. Training is considered solely with the mechanical aspect of a man's behaviour while education directly moulds the basic pattern of a man's mind from which all behaviours spring. In short, training concerns the partial man with a partial end to attain while education deals with the total man with the aim of meeting some vital needs related to his total existence.

(f) *Education—a social process*: Another vital feature of education is highlighted by the modern emphasis on its socialised nature. Education has been described as a mode of adjustment a process of growth. This no doubt means that it is primarily a process in which the individual is exclusively concerned. Through this very process the individual grows, adjust and solves his life problems and thus survives in a world of grim struggle. But still education is equally a social phenomenon. It takes place no doubt within the individual wherever he may always live in some kind of group or society. His existing is inevitably and inescapably related to the sound factors that he encounters and his education consequently a thoroughly social affair. It is directed and moulded by the objects and the people that constitute his environment and is largely regulated by the social conditions that surround him. This social implication of education has weighed much with the modern educators and the current

tendency of making the school a socialised centre of the child's experience has been its natural outcome.

(g) *Education as growth*: The broader concept of education has led modern educators to define education as growth. The child is an ever growing, ever expanding entity. He grows progressively and unceasingly in all the different faces of his existence. In reality he grows with his whole existence. He grows physically, intellectually, emotionally, socially and in more many other respects. Even he is advanced in age his growth process does not cease. Every activity he performs, every new experience he gathers every bid of new knowledge or skill he acquires adds to his unceasing process of growing. This all pervasive, all embracing phenomenon of growth which characterises every living being and which distinguishes him from an inanimate object is another name of education.

CHAPTER 2

ROLE OF THE STATE AND PRIVATE BODIES INCLUDING LOCAL BODIES ORGANISATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION

Q. 1. "Education is mainly the responsibility of the State Governments"—Elucidate.

Ans The Constitution of India provided that within a period of ten years free and compulsory education should be arranged for all children until they complete the age of 14 years. The Article 45 of the Constitution of India reads as follows: "The state shall endeavour to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years."

Every citizen of India has the right of having free and compulsory education at the primary stage. In a democratic country the citizen must be properly educated to be able to understand the political issues and give support to the measures they favour. Public opinion has an important part to play in a democratic system and it must be based on intelligent understanding if it is not be harmful then helpful. There

must be basic schooling at public expenses. Illiteracy is a curse in a democratic nation. Aristotle believed that the education should be controlled by the state and that it should have as a main objective the training of citizen. Uneducated citizens make the foundation of a nation weak. Their uncontrolled energy is a source of danger to the country. In order to concert their energy towards a fruitful end it is necessary to give them the minimum education.

During the British Regime the need of a compulsory education was never given due consideration. They organised education for some people of all places or all people of some places. It was an unsatisfactory arrangement and cannot be accepted in a modern democratic country where equality of opportunity is a fundamental right. So, the pledge of universal primary education was taken by Free India. But the country after independence faced numerous problems and the pledge of universal primary education could not be made effective even after the lapse of more than four decades and a half. Although considerable progress has been made in the successive Five-Year Plans in enrolment of pupils in the primary stage, the primary education is still being given on voluntary basis.

Education is essentially a state responsibility, and one of the directives of the Constitution enjoins that the state shall endeavour to provide free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years. Only in one State, Jammu and Kashmir, education is free for all students upto the university level. The state is also required to promote educational and economic interest of the weaker sections of the people.

Q. 2. Why we could not achieve desired progress in primary education in India ?

Ans. It is true that we could not achieve desired progress in primary education though it was the responsibility of the State Government to implement measures for the promotion of free and compulsory primary education.

One of the chief reasons for this slow progress in primary education in India is wastage. Statistics show that nearly

57% of the pupils admitted to class I in 1952-53 discontinued their studies before they reached class IV. Another factor is that 50% of the pupils failed to get promoted to the next higher class. They are naturally retained in a class for more than one year. This is known as stagnation. It had also been experienced that a large proportion of the students forget what they have learnt, because of discontinuation of studies. All these factors may be considered tremendous wastage of money and energy and poses a crucial problem in spreading primary education.

Moreover, the average position with regard to the primary school teachers is extremely unsatisfactory. Their social status is poor and poorer are still their enrolments. Hence they cannot take teaching as a true vocation. They have neither proper training nor the aptitude or intention to treat the tender minds of the primary school students. The position cannot be improved unless social and financial status of the teachers are improved.

The rural areas of India are inhabited by about 80% of India's total population and they are deprived of good communication. The number of schools is also inadequate. This is one of the important factors that hindered the progress of primary education in India.

The general economic condition of an average rural family is far from being satisfactory. Social prejudices prevents parents from sending their daughters to school. The economic distress and social prejudices are main factors that hinder the spread of education.

Next comes the preparation of curriculum for the primary students. It is too much heavy, unrealistic and dissociated from life is hardly attractive to the village boys and girls. But a well-thought out programme of basic education has not yet been possible.

There is scarcity of accommodations and absence of proper equipments. The environment and condition of the school are extremely unhygienic and dismal, and detestable to children and uncondusive to proper education.

From all that has been narrated it appears that financial problem is one of the most important factors which has rendered free and compulsory education in India extremely difficult.

Q. 3. Discuss the role of Local-Self Governments towards the promotion of primary education in India.

Ans. The primary education has not been given due importance even after the achievement of independence. The burden of the Herculean task of spreading primary education was left on the local bodies like municipalities in urban areas local boards in the rural areas. The Primary Education Act of U. P., Bengal and many other provinces laid more emphasis on the rural areas. In Assam, however, the entire province was brought under the jurisdiction of the Act. But initial responsibility had always been laid upon the local bodies.

Even after independence the position seems to have improved very little, though Government paid more attention towards primary education. The problem assumed a greater magnitude due to the continuous influx of refugees after the partition in 1947. But the country had taken a target of setting up a primary school within an easy walk from the home of every child by the end of the third Five-Year Plan. There has been a considerable expansion of educational facilities at all stages.

In order to stimulate local community interest, most of the States decided to entrust the administration of primary education to the local bodies constituted at the district level or preferably at the Block level. A Block roughly consists of 100 villages with a population of about 60,000. So, it was demand more convenient to adopt a compact programme of compulsory primary education on Block-basis.

In recent years well-to-do villagers have shown keen interest in the promotion of primary education. They are coming forward to provide school buildings, playgrounds, lands etc.

The average salary of primary school teacher has been raised. Teacher training facilities have also been expanded considerably.

In most of the States an integrated syllabus for primary and basic schools has been prepared with a view to making it more practical and attractive.

State Governments have published text books for primary schools and offered them to the primary students at the cheapest possible prices. Sometimes, the text books are distributed free to the poorer section of students. Fresh Acts are also being envisaged to enforce compulsory education in primary stage. Stress has also been laid on the education of girls and steps are being taken to enrol more girls to primary classes, breaking the prejudice against girls' education.

Q. 4. Suggest measures the State Government should take for effective promotion of primary education.

Ans. It is an admitted fact that ultimate responsibility lies on the State Government to administer free and compulsory education in the state. Specially constituted Boards at Block level may be entrusted with the actual administration of the primary schools but the State Governments should keep a watchful eye and take all measures necessary for smooth and satisfactory operation of primary schools.

The state should make proper allocation of funds on district basis. Considering State budgets only, as education is mainly the responsibility of the State Governments all the States together earmarked for education 20.9% of their total revenues during 1967-68 as compared with 19.5% during the previous year. In the Fourth Plan period that started in 1969-70 the State Governments have made an allocation of 20.3% for education.

There should be a specially constituted Board at the district level to look into the affairs of primary education. They will be responsible for allocating funds at the Block level and proper examination of new proposals.

State should make arrangements for the training of pri-

primary school teachers and help to meet the salaries of teachers and other non-teaching staff and the purchase of equipment and furniture.

State should be the responsibility of selecting land for school premises, preparing curriculum, publishing suitable text book of primary schools. The State Education Department should have a primary education cell to tackle the various problems of primary education. A Government may also levy education cess.

However much may be the State's responsibility for the promotion of primary education in a State, the Union Government cannot absolve itself of its responsibility towards primary education. The Centre should assist the states with adequate grants-in-aid for primary education. It should make special contribution for the primary education in the specially backward and under-developed areas of various states.

Q. 5. Discuss the role of the government and local authorities in the organisation and administration of primary education in India. Do you consider the present administrative arrangements to be satisfactory? Give reasons in support of your answer.

Ans. See answers to first three questions in this chapter.

Q. 6. "The development of education in the post-independence period could not meet our national aspirations."—Why?

Ans. During the first two decades of independence, there has been a phenomenal expansion in every sector of education. In the field of primary education, the total enrolment in classes I-V was 14.1 millions in 1946-47 while it increased to 50 millions in 1956-66. The percentage of enrolment to the total number of population in age-group 6-14 rose from 35% to 65% during the same period. In the middle school stage the enrolment increased from 9% to 25%. In secondary education the progress was still more marked. In 1946-47 there were 3637 secondary schools with 1.55 million students. In 1965-66 the number rose to about 2000,000. Similarly in the field of higher education the total enrolment in general and professional education rose from 0.25 million in 1946-47

to about 1.5 million in 1965-66. In spite of this unprecedented expansion, the entire programme has developed certain glaring defects, due to which it failed to meet the national aspirations. The major causes for this failure are discussed below :

First, the century had rejected the Sargent Plan of 1965 on the national system of education, chiefly because it envisaged the desired development to be attained in course of a period of 40 years (1945-1984). But the results and achievements upto the end of Third Five-Year Plan (1966) is at a far lower level than the targets proposed in the Sargent Plan. Even with larger allocation of funds and on intensive developmental programme a further period of 14-15 years will be required to reach the target. Thus the results of the educational plan failed to meet the national aspirations.

Secondly, the rapid expansions in the fields of primary and secondary education have resulted in a loss of qualitative improvement.

The main defects prevailing in the British period are still existing. The wastage and stagnation in primary education could not be diminished. The single track system secondary education leading to the sole object of collegiate education could not be replaced materially in spite of the introduction of vocational streams. Although a noticeable improvement has been made in the pay status of the secondary teachers, that of primary teachers still remains gloomy. Emphasis on higher education and secondary education in excess proportion to primary education was a common item of criticism during the British period. But the same criticism is applicable even today. The people expected that these defects would be largely removed. But the expectation has failed.

Another serious defect of the present system of education is that it has led to the crucial problem of educated unemployment. The position has reached an alarming height when a sense of utter frustration and unworthiness of edu-

cation is developing between the educational development and the development in the field of economy and industry.

One of the most important causes of failure is that the educational system has not been properly reoriented to the changed and new social order, the country decided to create. This new social order would require the citizens to imbibe certain qualities of democratic value. These are : patriotism, a feeling of unity in a diversity, respect and understanding of democracy, dignity of labour, interest in science, zeal to work hard etc. But hard fact is that the present educational system scarcely includes any positive programme in order to imbue the students with these values.

These are briefly the chief causes due to which the educational developments, although appreciably marked, have failed to meet the national aspirations.

Q 7. What steps would you suggest for the development of education in India ?

Ans. In order to streamline the educational system according to the national requirement, the future plans should give emphasis in the following special needs :

(1) *Expansion of education* : In spite of an appreciable expansion of education, India has not become an over-educated country. Much is yet to be done in the field of primary education in particular. By the end of the Sixth Five-Year Plan the higher education should be intensified to cover a period of four years. The enrolment to secondary schools should also be raised to 40% of the children in age-group 15-18. The university education should cover about 10% of the age-group 19-24. These standards are minimum for an industrially developed country and should be kept in view in the future planning.

(2) *Qualitative improvement of education* : It is an admitted fact that the quality of education has been much diluted due to its rapid expansion. There is also a danger of further dilution due to the future expansion. Utmost stress will, therefore, have to be given on improving the quality of education.

(3) *Co-ordinating education with economic development :*

The educational programme should be developed in harmony with the economic growth of the country, failing which disastrous results may come. Acute poverty is a fundamental feature of this country. Unless the position is improved by concerted programme of economic and industrial development, the educational programme will end in fiasco. It may happen in two ways. Either there may be educated unemployment or the educational programme itself may fail due to paucity of finance. Again education is considered as the most important single factor leading to economic development. So it is worth investing large finance on an all-round educational development. Thus, educational programme should be co-ordinated with the programme for economic development.

(4) *Human element and education :* So far it has been a custom to portray the progress of education by the extent of enrolment. But this is a most incorrect evaluation. The type and quality of education imparted and imbibed should be given due consideration. A bad education may make the numerical progress utterly ineffective and dangerous. The country should, therefore, aim to have more and more of better and still better education. For this human factor is to be given due importance. The human factor includes the students, the teachers, and the administrators. The students-teacher relation and the teacher-administrators relation should be based on understanding and sympathy. Each group has its own problems. So there must be a feeling of patience and co-operation in resolving these difficulties. The problems of these three human factors should, therefore, be given adequate importance in the future plans.

Educational Planning : Multiplicity of the problems calls for a moderately long term educational plan. We have neither accepted Sargent's Plan nor been able to lay out an alternative plan. Instead, short term plans are being operated but the result has not been what we expected. It is, therefore, necessary to make a comprehensive plan for the coming fifteen years at least. The following is the broad outline of such a plan, prepared on the basis of experience on the last three Five-year Plans.

1. *Objectives of Education* : In addition to the absolute objectives like development of personality the educational plan of India shall arm at the following topical objectives :

(i) Achievement of a national emotional integration. Notwithstanding the external diversity there is an underlying emotional unity.

(ii) Development of values, attitudes and habits favourable to maintenance of democracy.

(iii) Building up spiritual and moral outlook which should be secular in nature.

(iv) Attainment of increased productivity.

(v) Development of scientific outlook and interest on science. There may be others. But there are some very important objectives which are set with an eye to the present situation.

2. *Content of education* : In order to meet the challenge before the country it is necessary to increase the content of education. For example, Dr. D. S. Kothari the Chairman of the University Grants Commission, suggested that at the end of the 5th Five Year Plan, the standard of the secondary education and the first Degree Course should be such as to correspond to the present Intermediate and Master's Degree. Without being dogmatic, this point is to be given due consideration and adequate research should be made to revise the curriculum so as to intensify the contents. The period may be extended if necessary. One thing is certain. Utmost emphasis should be given on science and technology in the curriculum.

3. *Search for talent* : Another important programme should be to discover talent at all stages—Primary, Secondary and University and to provide the best educational opportunity to the talented students. Larger scholarships, more number of better schools and institutions, teachers of high degree of proficiency should be provided to cater these talented students.

4. *Primary Education* : The target of free and compul-

sory education should be fulfilled by 1980-81. In this connection a definite policy is to be decided regarding the basic education, on which controversy exists. It may be necessary to make modifications keeping an eye to the industrial development acquired in the country. Suitable programme are to be taken up to attain the target in the lines noted below :

- (i) More schools should be opened in scattered villages.
- (ii) Compulsory attendance is to be enforced.
- (iii) Special facilities may be given to girls and tribal children.
- (iv) Curriculum should be improved in quality and value.
- (v) Training on better method of teaching should be given.
- (vi) Text books and method of evaluation should be improved.

5. *Secondary Education* : Utmost importance is to be given to secondary education, which is the nation-building education. The following programme may be taken up for its expansion and improvement :

(i) Duration of the secondary course should be made 4 years (Classes IX—XII).

(ii) More facilities should be given to girls and the backward community in rural areas.

(iii) Part-time secondary education should be introduced so as to raise the enrolment to 40% of the age group.

(iv) The syllabus should be intensified to cover a deeper content so as to reach a higher standard.

(v) Courses should be diversified to include a number of subjects, so that the pupil may be prepared for his life.

(vi) Vocational and technical subjects should be introduced largely. The target should be such as to provide vocational stream for at least 50% students.

(vii) System of evaluation should be improved. External examination should be ultimately abolished.

6. Higher Education :

- (i) Standard of education should be improved.
- (ii) Vigorous attempt should be directed to increase the enrolment to at least 10% of the age-group.
- (iii) Adequate facilities should be provided for talented students by extending scholarships etc.
- (iv) Definite policy decision is necessary regarding the medium of instruction.

7. Social Education : Intensive campaign on social education and programme of mass education should be taken up.

8. Teachers : For the improvement of the status and efficiency of the teachers well-concerted programme should be taken up. Improvement of pay scale, provision of pre-service and in-service training, refresher courses etc. should be given due consideration. Books on educational matters should be published in regional languages for the knowledge of teachers who do not know English.

9. Administration and Finance :

- (i) The administration of education at all levels should be provided with in-service training.
- (ii) Higher priority should be given on education, and maximum resources should be raised in the public sector.
- (iii) The courses on educational administration in M. Ed. Degree Course should be intensified and should include general administration.
- (iv) Ways and means are to be devised to supplement the public sector by resources through contribution from local bodies, local communities and enthusiastic individuals.

Only such a combined approach may help to solve the problem of finance.

Q. 8. In what way has private effort co-operated with the Government in the expansion of Indian Education ?

[G. U. 1966]

Ans. Since the advent of the British rule in India, private efforts have all along been contributing to the spread of education in India. Private or non-official enterprises in this direction can be grouped under the following sectors :

- (1) Contribution of the missionaries.
- (2) Efforts of the Company's officials in their private capacity.
- (3) Efforts of the Indians.
- (4) Indigenous system of education.
- (5) Local authorities' contribution.

A detailed study on the achievements under each sector is made in the following paragraphs :

(1) *Contribution of the Missionaries*: It cannot be denied that with the advent of the East India Company in India, pioneer work was done by the missionaries in the field of education. It is true that their primary object was to spread Christianity, but this does not minimise their credit. A large number of schools, orphanages and colleges were started by the different groups of missionaries during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in Madras, Bombay, Bengal and Assam. The work of the Danish Missionary and the London Missionary Societies in Madras, the contribution of the famous 'Serampore Trio' in Bengal and that of Brown, Bronson and Farewell in Assam shall be remembered in the history of education of these provinces.

The work of the missionaries was not an easy sailing. They had successfully overcome the initial hurdles. They learnt the local languages, prepared new scripts where necessary, and printed books for the spread of mass-education. But at the end of the eighteenth century (1793) the work of the missionaries was prohibited due to the Company's policy of religious neutrality. The Charter Act of 1810 again permitted the missionaries to work. So, the period following, was marked by a rapid expansion of the missionary activities in the field of education.

In this connection it is important to note that after 1793,

when the missionary activities were prohibited, the missionaries raised strong protests and made a concerted move in England to re-establish their claim in the field of education in India. Their arguments were mainly as follows :

(i) The Company's schools are harmful as they were 'Godless' and 'Heathen', and they should, therefore, teach the Bible.

(ii) If this was not possible on political grounds, the Company should completely withdraw from the field of education in favour of the missionaries.

(iii) The Company's schools were costlier and therefore it was more economical to spend money on the missionary schools.

(iv) The missionaries had a moral right of receiving grants-in-aid from the Company. This should, therefore, be converted into legal right.

As a result of the strong move, the Charter Act of 1813 accepted the claim of the missionaries and things went on smoothly for them.

So long only the British missionaries were allowed to work in India. The Charter Act of 1813 allowed missionaries from all parts of the world to work. This resulted in a greater enthusiasm in the missionary activities. The emphasis was now changed from the expansion of primary education to starting secondary schools and colleges, teaching through English. Wood's Education Despatch of 1854 recommended a gradual withdrawal of the Government from the field of education through a policy of grants-in-aid. This provided a further stimulus to the missionary enterprise. The period of 1813 to 1857 has, therefore, been rightly described as the 'age of the mission school'.

Education, it is needless to say, was never the chief object of the missionaries. *First*, the principal object of the missionaries was spreading Christianity among the Indians. *Secondly*, they attached a great importance to the modern Indian languages. They performed the assiduous task of translating and preparing text books in the local dialects

which were considered by the British officials as "so poor and rude that it will not be possible to translate any valuable work into them". *Thirdly*, the missionaries took the bold venture to educate the women—a 'dangerous area' where the officials did not dare to tread. The available statistics show that during this period the missionary institutions outnumbered the government ones. It may, therefore, be concluded that during this period major educational field was provided by the missionaries and not by the Company.

2. *Efforts of the Company's officials*: Besides the missionaries a number of British officials and many non-officials made notable contributions to the Indian Educational system during the 18th century. Some of them followed the principle of the missionaries in spreading Christianity through English education. But there were others who believed in a secular education. They encouraged private enterprise among the Indians themselves.

(a) *David Hare*: Foremost in the list of those non-officials is David Hare, who, in his own words, was an 'uneducated man friendly to education'. In his time the country's education was dominated by religion,—the private institutions by Hinduism or Islam, and the mission schools by Christianity. He, therefore, wanted to spread secular education. He was successful in establishing the Hindu Vidyalyaya, with the following objectives :

- (i) A secular education.
- (ii) Study of English and modern languages.
- (iii) Exclusion of oriental languages like Sanskrit or Arabic.
- (iv) Exclusion of Science.

The model was objected to at first. But its practical features were apparent. The Company found it helpful to maintain religious neutrality and to get suitable young men for service. The private Indian organisation also found it less costly due to exclusion of Science subjects. So, for a period to come, this model of David Hare was accepted as a tried pattern in the new schools and colleges. The policy of

secular education is still being followed in the educational pattern of India.

(b) *F. E. M. Bethune* : Another pioneer in the educational field of India was F. E. D. Bethune, the then member of the Executive Council of the Governor-General. Being an official, he had much less scope to support an enterprise incongruous with the Company's policy. But his ardent desire to educate the Indian women, actuated him to open in May 1849 a secular school for Indian girls by himself and to bear all its expenses. The result was striking. The eager and quick response from the Indian girls was in no way less than 'what is found among European girls of the same age', as admitted by Bethune himself. To associate the name of this great man, the school was soon developed into Bethune College. The example was soon emulated by many other officials, and institutions of similar nature, to impart a modern secular education, were opened in various other places by their own initiatives.

(c) *Elphinstone* : An experiment of different types was made by Mount Stuart Elphinstone, Governor of Bombay, in 1819. At that time the Bombay Education Society provided education mainly to the Anglo-Indian and poor European children. It is by the active guidance of Elphinstone that the Society extended its activity towards the Indian children. By 1822 the society served an increasing number of students. A special Committee for education of Indian children which was appointed earlier was then formed into a new society called 'Bombay Native Education Society' to exclusively look after the education of Indian children. All these were possible and the B. N. E. Society developed into an eminent body, solely due to the effort of Elphinstone.

There non-officials realised that neither the Company nor the missionaries could provide all the education, the country requires. So they showed the way to the Indian, to develop their own private enterprise. This lead was invaluable, as it aroused the interest of the leading Indians and thus acted as a check on the desire and attempts of the missionaries to monopolise the field of education in India.

3. *Private Indian enterprise* : Prior to 1854, the contribution of private enterprise was restricted to the indigenous schools. The role of Indians in modern education was minor. This was due to several factors. *First*, the prejudice and orthodoxy of the parents were so strong that it required a great moral courage to attempt to introduce modern western education for the Indian children. Very few persons in those days had such courage. *Secondly*, the prevailing custom was to have a European as the Principal of a school or a college. So it was really hard for an Indian to get a European for the purpose. *Thirdly*, the management of modern educational institution required people educated in modern methods, and such people were not many. Still the name of Raja Rammohan Roy is emblazoned in the history of India as the father of modern India for his contributions to the modern system of education in India. He realised the need for a synthesis of Eastern and Western culture for the development of the nation. On the one hand, he introduced the study of English language and Science in the schools and colleges. On the other hand, he did not underrate the need for studying modern Indian languages. Besides, he was a great social and religious reformer. He visualised a cultured, rich, and free India. His moves were momentous enough to break the barriers of prejudice among the Indians in the educational, cultural and social fields.

4. *Indigenous system* : The contributions of Indian private enterprise in the maintenance and expansion of indigenous educational system was significant. The number of schools was fairly high and there was no help or grant from the Company. During the 18th and 19th centuries, the indigenous institutions, both elementary and higher, were the chief educational enterprise in the rural areas. Sometimes proposals were made for improvement of these schools. But they were ultimately ignored. The Despatch of 1854 recommended that the Government should rely mainly on the private enterprise for the spread of education, particularly primary and the private institutions should be given grants-in-aid. But the Despatch of 1859 rang the opposite note and advised that for mass education. Government

should rely mainly on Government schools. The controversy was not resolved, but the Provinces were allowed to develop their programme in their own lines. In fact, the Despatch of 1859 was given freedom and assistance as well. And as such the private efforts in all the fields marked and appreciable growth during the period from 1854 to 1882.

5. Local Authorities: The recommendations of the Indian Education Commission of 1882 regarding primary education turned a new leaf in the history of primary education. In this connection the name of Lord Ripon will be remembered for the constitution of local self-governments, like Local Boards in the rural area and Municipalities, in the urban area. The administration of primary education was entrusted with these local bodies. In some provinces the charge of secondary education was also transferred to the local bodies. In spite of the efforts of the local bodies, the effect of this transfer was not very encouraging. The growth of primary education was rather retarded. There were genuine difficulties. The task was Herculean and resources were limited. In the circumstances Primary Education Acts was passed in most of the Provinces by 1850. Under these Acts local authorities were empowered to levy educational tax where necessary and the Provincial Governments were to bear two-thirds of additional cost. But levy of a new tax by an elected body was too much to be expected in the face of the risk of unpopularity. So, the Acts virtually remained in papers, and the enterprise of the local bodies in spreading primary education continued to go on in a traditional way.

We can hardly blame the local authorities for the failure. Lord Ripon observed that the experiment would succeed only if the transfer of charge was followed by a transfer of additional resources, and if the Government officers exercise more administrative and directive energy in fostering a small beginning of an independent political life of the Indians. But these suggestions were not given the due consideration.

Q. 9. Discuss how the Indian Education has been organised through efforts and local bodies.

Ans. With the advent of British power and after the East India Company had set strong foot on the Indian soil, various social and political leaders of India urged for western education. Lord Bentinck in 1835 initiated the partnership responsibility of the government in promoting education. Since then private efforts have all along been contributing to the spread of education in India.

Voluntary and non-official enterprise in the promotion of Indian education can be grouped under the following sectors :

- (1) Contribution of the missionaries.
- (2) Efforts of the East India Company's officials in their private capacity.
- (3) Efforts of the Indians.
- (4) Indigenous system of education.
- (5) Contribution of local self-governing bodies.

Contribution of the Missionaries : Missionary enterprise in early 18th and during the 19th century was confined in imparting elementary and western education amongst Indian children. They sought to promote the social and moral standard of the people. It cannot be denied that with the advent of the East India Company in India, pioneer work was done by the missionaries in the field of education. Their primary object was to spread Christianity, but this does not minimise their credit. A large number of schools, orphanages and colleges were started by different groups of the Missionaries during the 18th and 19th centuries in Madras, Bombay, Bengal and Assam. The work of the Danish Missionaries and the London Missionary societies in Madras, the contributions of the famous 'Serampore Trio' in Bengal and that of Brown, Bronson and Farewell in Assam shall be remembered in the history of education of these provinces.

The work of the missionaries, was not easy sailing. They had successfully overcome the initial hurdles. They learnt the local languages and prepared new scripts where necessary. They introduced printed books, rigid class system and routine time tables. They fixed the working hours of schools and

introduced more than one teacher in one school. Thus they laid the foundation of modern system of education in India.

In 1793 the work of the missionaries was prohibited owing to Company's policy of a religious neutrality. The Charter Act of 1813 again permitted the missionaries to work. Then there was a rapid expansion of missionary activities in the field of education.

After the prohibition of missionary activities 1793, the missionaries raised strong protests and made a concerted move in England to re-establish their claim in the field of education in India.

They made the following arguments :

(1) The Company's schools are harmful being "Godless" and "Heathen" and should, therefore, teach the Bible.

(2) If this was not possible for political reason, the Company should completely withdraw from the field of education, in favour of the missionaries.

(3) The Company's schools were costlier and therefore it was more economical to spend money on the missionary schools.

(4) The missionaries had a 'moral' right of receiving grants-in-aid from the Company. This should, therefore, be converted into legal right.

The move yielded results and the Charter Act of 1813 reassured their claim.

So long, only the British missionaries were allowed to function in India. The Charter Act of 1813 allowed missionaries from all parts of the world to work. This resulted in a greater enthusiasm in the missionary activities. The emphasis was now changed from the expansion of primary education to starting secondary schools and colleges, teaching through English.

In 1854 Wood's Despatch recommended a general withdrawal of the Government from the field of education through a policy of grants-in-aid, to encourage local initiative.

This provided a further stimulus to the missionary enterprise. The period of 1813 to 1857 has, therefore, been described as the 'age of the mission school'.

It is needless to say, that education was never the chief object of the missionaries. Their principal object was spreading Christianity among the Indians. *Secondly*, the missionaries attached a great importance to the modern Indian languages. They performed the assiduous task of translating and preparing text books in the local dialects, which were considered by the British officials as so "poor and rude that it will not be possible to translate any valuable work into them." *Thirdly*, the missionaries took the bold venture to educate the women—"a dangerous area" where the officials did not dare to tread. The available statistics show that during this period, i.e., upto the middle of the nineteenth century, the missionary institutions outnumbered the government institutions.

Thus the missionaries provided a major educational field in India.

Efforts of the Company's officials and other non-officials :

A number of officials of the East India Company and many non-officials made notable contributions towards the Indian educational system during the 18th century. Some of them followed the principle of the missionaries in spreading Christianity through English education. But there were others who believed in a secular education. They also encouraged private enterprises among the Indians themselves.

David Hare—He described himself as "an uneducated man friendly to education", but is the foremost in the list of non-officials who contributed to the cause of spreading education. In his time, the country's education was dominated by religion, the private institutions by Hinduism or Islamism, and the mission schools by Christianity. He, therefore, wanted to spread secular education. He was successful in establishing the Hindu Vidyalaya, with the following objectives :—

- (a) A secular education ; (b) Study of English and

modern Indian languages ; (c) Exclusion of oriental language like Sanskrit or Arabic ; (d) Exclusion of Science.

This model was objected to at first. But soon its practical features were apparent. The Company found it helpful to maintain religious neutrality and to get suitable young men for service. The private Indian organisations also found it less costly due to the exclusion of science subjects. So, for a period to come, this model of David Hare was accepted as a tried pattern in the new schools and colleges. His policy of secular education is still being followed in the educational pattern of India.

F. F. D. Bethune—Another pioneer in the field of education in India. He was a member of the Executive Council of the Governor-General. Being an official he had much less scope to support an enterprise incongruous with the Company's policy. But his ardent desire to educate the Indian women, actuated him to open in May 1849 a secular school in Calcutta for Indian girls by himself and to bear all expenses. The result was striking. The eager and quick response from the Indian girl was "in no way less than what is found among European girls of the same age", as admitted by Bethune himself. To associate the name of this great man, the school was soon developed into Bethune College. The example was soon emulated by many other officials, and institutions of similar nature, to impart modern secular education, were opened in various other places by their own efforts.

Mount Stuart Elphinstone—He carried out a different experiment. He was the Governor of Bombay in 1819. At that time the Bombay Education Society provided education mainly to the Anglo-Indians and poor European children. It is by the active guidance of Elphinstone that the Society extended its activities towards the Indian children. By 1882, the Society served a large number of Indian children. A special committee for education for Indians was formed into a new society called "Bombay Native Education Society", exclusively to look after the education of Indian children.

These non-officials realised that neither the Company nor

missionaries could provide all the education, the country requires. So they showed the way to the Indians to develop their own private enterprise. This lead was invaluable, as it aroused the interest of the leading Indians and thus acted as a momentous check to the desire and attempts of the missionaries in the field of education in India.

Private Indian Enterprise : Prior to 1854, the contribution of private enterprise was restricted to the indigenous school. The role of Indians in modern education was minor. This was due to many factors. *First*, the prejudice and orthodoxy of the parents were so strong that it required a great moral courage to introduce modern western education for the Indian children. Very few had in those days had such a courage. *Secondly*, the prevailing custom was to have a European as the Principal of school or college. So it was really hard for an Indian to get a European for the purpose. *Thirdly*, the management, of a modern educational institution requires people educated in modern methods, and such people were not many. Still, the name of Raja Rammohan Ray, is emblazoned in the history of India as the father of modern system of education in India. He realised the need for a synthesis of western and eastern culture for the development of the nation. On the one hand, he introduced the study of English language and science subjects in schools and colleges. On the other hand, he did not underrates the need for studying modern Indian languages. Besides, he was a great social and religious reformer. He visualised a cultured, educated, rich and free India. His moves were momentous enough to break the barrier of prejudice among the Indians in the educational, cultural and social fields.

Indigenous System : The contribution of private Indian enterprise in the maintenance and expansion of indigenous educational system was significant. The number of schools was fairly high and there was no help or grant from the company. During the 17th and 18th centuries, the indigenous institutions, both elementary and higher, were the chief educational enterprise in the rural areas. Sometimes propo-

sals were made for improvement of these schools. But they were ultimately ignored. The Wood's Despatch of 1854 recommended that the Government should rely mainly on the private enterprise for the spread of primary education and the private institution should be given grants-in-aid. But the Despatch of 1859 rang the opposite note and advised that for mass education Government should rely mainly on Government schools. The controversy was not resolved, but the provinces were allowed to develop their programme in their own lines. In fact, the Despatch of 1859 was not seriously followed. As a result, Indian enterprise was given freedom and assistance as well and as such, the private efforts in all the fields marked an appreciable growth during the period from 1854-1882.

Local Self-governing Bodies : The recommendation of the Indian Education Commission of 1882 regarding primary education turned a new leaf in the history of primary education. In this connection the name of Lord Ripon will be recommended for the constitution of local self-governing authorities, like Local Boards in the rural areas and the Municipalities in the urban areas.

The administration of primary education was entrusted with the local bodies. In some of the provinces the charge of secondary education was also transferred to the local bodies. In spite of the efforts of the local bodies, the effects of this transfer was not very encouraging. The growth of primary education was rather retarded. There were genuine difficulties. The task was Herculean but the resources were limited.

In the circumstances Primary Education Acts were passed in most of the provinces by 1830. These Acts empowered the local authorities to levy educational cess where necessary and the Provincial Governments were to bear two-thirds of the additional cost. But levy of a new cess by an elected body was too much to be expected on the face of the risk of unpopularity. So the Acts could not be much effective and the enterprise of the local bodies in spreading primary education continued in the traditional way.

Local bodies could hardly be blamed for the failure. Lord Ripon observed that the experiment would succeed only if the transfer of the charge was followed by a transfer of additional resources, and if the Government officers exercise more administrative and directive energy in fostering a small beginning of an independent political life of the Indians. But these suggestions were not given due consideration.

Q. 10. Discuss the role of Missionaries in the promotion of Indian Education.

Ans. [See the relevant portion of the answer to the previous question.]

Q. 11. Discuss the steps envisaged in the fourth Five-year Plan for the development of education.

Ans. The fourth Five-year Plan which began in 1969-70 is based broadly on the recommendations of the Education Commission with the following principal features :

(1) Each state is to prepare a long term perspective plan of educational development for the next 15-20 years.

(2) The emphasis in the 4th Plan is on consolidation with controlled growth giving due weight to programmes of qualitative improvement. The following core programmes are given priority :

(a) Teachers' education and upgrading of curricular. Inservice training for teachers was stressed.

(b) Adoption of improved methods of teaching and evaluation.

(c) Improvement of text-books and provision of supplementary materials on an adequate scale.

(d) Supply of text-books to students, either free or through text-book libraries.

(e) Improvement of supervision.

(f) Provision of guidance service to students.

(3) The programme of implementing the revised scale of college and university teachers and the revision of salaries of school teachers is to receive priority.

(4) Programmes for improving physical training facilities in schools should occupy a place of importance, drawing largely on community support.

(5) Improvement of science education is to receive emphasis.

(6) A programme of improvement of buildings should be taken up and means of reducing the cost without sacrificing quality is to be worked out.

(7) Close relationship should be maintained between the output of education system and man-power needs of employment.

(8) Pilot projects of functional literacy, especially in combination with programmes for improving the vocational competence of adults, is to be developed.

(9) Programmes of work-experience and national or social service are to be developed on a pilot basis and generalised in the light of experience gained.

(10) Production of text-books, especially those in regional languages with a view to their adoption as media in the university stage, is to be emphasised.

During 1967-68 a sum of Rs. 6,630 millions is estimated to have been provided for education in the budget of various ministries of the Union Govt. and Union Territory administration. Its break-up is : Union Govt. Rs. 1,165 and State Govts. Rs. 5,465 millions.

Considering State-budgets only, as education is mainly the responsibility of the State Govts. all the States together earmarked for education about 20.9% of their total revenues during 1967-68 as compared with 19.5% during the previous year. Kerala devoted the highest percentage (35.3%) of its budget to education.

While the fiscal year is uniform, i.e., 1st April to 31st March the school year varies from state to state. This is inevitable in a country so large in size and such differing climatic conditions. In some states, the school year begins in January, in others in April, June or July.

Lower primary education is free in all parts of the country except in a small number of private institutions. Higher primary education is also free except in four states.

Q. 12. Name the organisations that contributed most towards the development of education in India in the beginning of East India Company's rule. What role did the organisation play in the educational development of Bombay, Madras and Bengal?

Ans. Missionary enterprise in early 18th and during the 19th century was confined in imparting elementary and western education among Indian children. They sought to promote the social and moral standard of the people. It cannot be denied that with the advent of the East India Company in India, pioneer work was done by the missionaries in the field of education. Their primary object was to spread Christianity, but this does not minimise their credit. A large number of schools, orphanages and colleges were started by different groups of the missionaries. The work of the Danish Missionaries and the London Missionary Societies in Madras, the contributions of the famous 'Serampore Trio' in Bengal and Brown, Bronson and Farwell in Assam shall be remembered in the history of education in these provinces.

In Bengal, the Calcutta Free School Society was established in 1789 for the education of the European children in Calcutta. Later, three missionaries from England, Carey, Marshman and Ward settled in Serampore and started an effective and excellent educational work. They started several schools in Serampore and near Calcutta. In Bombay, London Missionary Society, the Scottish Missionary Society, the American Missionary Society and the Church Missionary Society achieved substantial progress in spreading education in Bombay. In Madras, the activities of the missionaries attained the highest degree of success. In 1927 a German missionary founded two schools in Madras. In 1805 the London Missionary Society started opening a number of schools in various parts of Madras Presidency.

Q. 13. Name the various missionary societies formed in

Bombay and estimate their contribution towards the spread of education in the province.

Ans. The earliest educational enterprise in Bombay Presidency was carried out by the Portuguese missionaries. They started many schools and colleges in Bombay. Among them mention may be made of Jesuits College, St. Anne's College at Bandra and another college at Monpacher.

After the expansion of the Portuguese by the Marathas in 1739, much of the educational work was carried on by Indian Christians. A school was opened for the education of poor Protestant children by Rev. Richard Cobbre. Subsequently a number of different missionary organisations contributed much to the spread of education in Bombay. A substantial progress in the primary education was achieved by these organisations which had come from different parts of Europe and America. Of them mention may be made of the London Missionary Society, the Scottish Missionary Society, the American Missionary Society and the Church Missionary Society. They worked during the period from 1840-1859. The activities of these missionary societies are praiseworthy as they achieved enormous progress in the spread of education in Bombay Province.

Q. 14. Discuss the role of missionaries in the development of modern education in Assam.

Ans. The first missionary enterprise in Assam was the setting up of a branch of Serampore missionary in Guwahati in 1829. The famous Serampore Trio—Carey, Marshman and Ward—had earlier translated and published the Bible into Assamese with the help of a local scholar Almaram Sharma. They also published an Anglo-Assamese dictionary. In 1845 the first Baptist Church was set up at Guwahati. The American Baptist Mission Society sent a mission led by Oliver Carter and Nathan Brown. They brought a printing press to Sadya. They started a number of schools in and around Sibsagar. The American missionaries also opened centres at Guwahati, Shillong, Sibsagar, Nowgong and other places. At Nowgong an orphanage and a hospital were also set up. They

moved to the rural areas, taught Assamese, wrote books and disseminated knowledge among the rural people.

Another missionary Dr. Bronson worked among the Nagas near Jaipur. He not only taught the three Rs, but also taught the Naga boys the technique of manufacturing tea and salt. Besides opening elementary schools and spreading religion the missionaries also established some high schools in order to impart higher education to the children.

A very notable and praiseworthy work was done by the missionaries by publishing a monthly journal 'The Arundodaya', the first of its kind in 1846.

It can thus be seen that the missionaries laid a very strong and wide-spread foundation for education in Assam by covering the entire State and its hill areas by a network of schools. The Charter Act of 1813 included an educational clause and it helped the missionaries to further their educational campaign.

CHAPTER 3

GROWTH OF PRIMARY EDUCATION SINCE 1813

Q. 1. Trace the development of elementary education before 1882. How did the recommendation of the Indian Education Commission of 1882 concerning Primary Education influence its subsequent development?

Ans. Prior to the advent of European Missionaries in India a few indigenous schools were set up with a view to spreading primary education in our country. We had Tols for the Hindus and Mukhtabs and Madrasahs for the Muslims. These indigenous schools were the only source of education. There were village Pathshalas to teach the children in rural

areas. Individual efforts were mainly responsible for setting up of Pathshalas, but the teacher had to take out his humble living in some other ways and hence the profession of teaching was a secondary importance to him.

Thomas Munro made an enquiry in different parts of our country to ascertain the position of indigenous system of education in our country. His findings did not present a bright picture. The report said that the number of schools in territories under this Presidency amounts to 12,493 and the population was 12,850,941. It shows there was only one school for every 1,000 of the population.

Munro further stated "It is remarked by the Board of Revenue, that of a population of twelve millions and a half there are only 1,88,000 or 1 in 57 receiving education. This is true of the whole population, but not as regards the male part of it, of which the proportion of educated is much greater than is here estimated; for if we take the whole population as stated in the report at 12,850,000 and deduct one-half for females, the remaining male population will be 64,25,000 and if we reckon the male population between the age of five and ten years which is the period at which boys in general remain at school at one-ninths, it will give 7,13,000 which is the number of boys that would be at school if all the males above ten years of age were educated."

William Adam, a missionary, conducted an enquiry in Bengal. His report was enriched with all the available data of education. He stated: "Indigenous elementary schools by this description are meant those schools in which the instruction in the elements of knowledge communicated, and which have been originated and supported by the natives themselves, in contradistinction from those that are supported by religious or philanthropic societies. The number of such schools in Bengal is supposed to be very great". In his second report he made a review of the indigenous schools at Natore in the district of Rajshahi (Bangladesh). He stated". "Elementary instruction in the district is divisible in two sorts, public and private, according as it is communicated in public

schools and in private families. The distinction is not always strictly maintained but sufficiently marked."

The indigenous elementary schools were the main agencies of education prior to 1852 and instruction in these institutions was limited to three R's.

These schools had no building of their own nor did they recommended any text-book for the pupils. The classes were held in the house of the teacher or under a tree. The students used to bring slates and pencils with them. The number of pupils varied from 5 to 15. The time and hours of instruction were adjusted to the requirement of the locality. In most cases girls and Harijans were excluded. The destitution of the people under British rule caused the decay in the indigenous system of education.

Some of the persons who steered the vehicle of education opined that if the upper classes of the society are educated it will gradually spread among the lower classes. Adam opposed this approach. He considered that the system of education should primary concern, the common people and unless the lower classes are educated, education will never spread.

The concerted efforts of the missionaries and the private institutions brought about a stir and the Government employed its energy to formulate and accelerate the elementary education in our country.

Lord Hardinge declared employment opportunities for those who passed from the schools approved by the Council and this created an urge for education. The Government took up the responsibility of making payments to the teachers and some schools for elementary education were set up in the villages. A small sum as fee was imposed on the students and a part of the money thus obtained was utilised towards payment of the teachers. Hardinge set up 101 schools and it was later brought to the notice of the authorities that of these schools only 26 schools still existed.

Came in, Lord Dalhousie with a zeal to spread the elemen-

tary education in the country and the native schools were sanctioned grants-in-aid. In Bombay there were 12,000 students studying in the schools approved by the Government in 1852. Bengal had only 33 schools with 1400 students.

The missionaries in Madras set up schools even in the absence of Government aids and Madras had 1185 schools with 38,000 students.

Mr. Thompson, the then Governor of North West Province made great attempts for the spread of elementary education in his state and introduced education cess and appointed Inspectors in the province. In 1854, there were 3920 schools in North-West Province with 53,000 students.

Charles Wood by his long historical report of 1854, known as Wood's despatch, brought about a great change in the sphere of elementary education of our country. It admitted the negligence to improve the system of elementary education and vehemently opposed the downward filtration theory advocated by a few and opined that the Government should take up the charge of the elementary education. It commended steps taken by Mr. Thompson for the spread of elementary education in the North-West Province and recommended similar steps for other provinces. The Despatch stressed the need of the Government aid being extended to private institutions.

In 1859 Stanley introduced education cess and recommended that the entire amount should be spent for elementary education.

But there was little remarkable change in the sphere of elementary education till Lord Ripon set up the Indian Education Commission in 1882 with Sir William Hunter as the President of the Commission.

The Indian Education, popularly known as Hunter's Commission includes these factors of elementary education in its report: (a) Policy, (b) Legislation, (c) Encouragement of the indigenous schools, (d) School administration, (e) Teachers' training, (f) Finance.

Hinter's report states, "Primary education should be regarded as the instruction of the masses through vernacular in such subjects as will fit them for their position in life, and be not necessarily regarded as a portion of instruction leading up to university." It further states, "The Primary Education be extended in backward districts, specially in those inhabited mainly by aboriginal races, by the instrumentality of the Department pending creation of School Boards, or by specially liberal grant-in-aid to those who are willing to set up and maintain schools."

The Commission recommended the handover of the control of primary education to the District Boards and the Municipal Boards as was practised in England. It believed the district and municipal authorities would be more sympathetic and should assist the indigenous schools to functions smoothly. It also recommended the training of the teachers of the indigenous schools and introduction of standard examination suiting each province. The Commission did not introduce any hard and fast rule about the internal management, uniformity of standard and the selection of text-books. The medium of instruction in the primary schools was mother-tongue and practical subjects were taught. The Commission did not think it wise to interfere with the internal management of the elementary schools. The authorities of the primary schools were allowed liberty to select text-books according to their own choice.

The Commission recommended the creation of a special fund for elementary education.

It said separate accounts should be maintained in order to avoid the expenditure, in municipal areas, of money meant for villages and recommended suitable system of grant-in-aid to assist the local fund.

The Government accepted some of the recommendation of the Commission. Lord Ripon came out with a bold venture to introduce local self-government. Local Boards and Municipal Boards were set up in almost all the provinces of India. Their primary responsibility was to take all necessary

fruitful steps for the spread of primary education in the local areas.

At this time secondary and college education began to increase gradually and the Provincial Governments began to neglect the policy of the Commission in regard to primary education. They began to utilise the local funds to few of these two branches of education and the indigenous schools began to suffer. The condition of elementary education became gradually worse.

Despite defects and attitude of neglect some marks of achievement can be found.

In line with the schools in England the Government of India spent a large sum of money for the building of primary schools although only a few schools could have been built with the fund provided.

Introduction of teachers' training improved the quality of the teachers and the indigenous schools saw well trained teachers to impart lessons to the pupils.

Girls and Harijans were hardly seen in schools but the new schools improved the number of girl students attending schools and the Harijans had easy access to the indigenous schools.

Text-books were introduced and were extremely useful to the learners.

Improved methods of teaching helped the spread of elementary education. Kindergarten system was found to be useful to the students. Trained teachers followed new techniques and imparted a better standard of teaching.

It was in 1901-02 when the curriculum for primary education was introduced. It included Kindergarten, Drawing, Object lessons, Geography, History, Singing and Recitation, Hygiene, Agriculture, Science, Second language, Mensuration, Physical exercise and Manual work.

The recommendation of the Indian Education Commission

1882, popularly known as Hunter's Commission, helped immensely in remoulding the system of elementary education in our country.

Q. 2. Discuss the growth of primary education between the period 1882 and 1902.

Ans. Viewing there was little remarkable change in the sphere of elementary education Lord Ripon set up the Indian Education Commission of 1882. It was popularly known as Hunter's Commission after the name of Sir William Hunter who was appointed President of the Commission. The period between 1882 and 1902 was chiefly influenced by the recommendations of this Commission.

The Commission made thorough study of the system of education prevailing at the time in the country and offered elaborate recommendation on the aspects of primary, secondary and collegiate education. The recommendations include policy, legislation, encouragement of the indigenous schools, school administration, teacher's training and regarded primary education as the instruction of the masses through vernacular in such subjects as will fit them for their position in life and be not necessarily regarded as a portion of instruction leading up to the university. Some of the proposals were bold and revolutionary and focussed a new light in the field of education. Naturally, therefore, the period under review was a period of experimentation in the field of education. Although the recommendations did not attain a complete success they marked the beginning of a new era. The importance of this period will be revealed through a detailed analysis of the influence these recommendations wielded in the different stages of education.

The outstanding recommendation of the Commission consisted in advising complete restoration of the responsibility of primary education to local bodies. The Commission also recommended gradual withdrawal of the Government from the field. As an immediate effect the management of the primary school was completely vested with the local bodies like Municipalities and Local Boards. Lord Ripon introdu-

ced the scheme of local self-government, chief in order to implement importance. *First*, the transfer of the control of education to the local bodies was actuated by the Elementary Education Acts of England. *Secondly*, it served as a timely antidote to the slowly growing discontent against the British Rule, by transfer of certain responsibilities to the people of the soil in the form of self-government.

The next important recommendation was the gradual withdrawal of the Government from the field of education and encouragement of private institutions by introducing a well-laid system of grant-in-aid.

The prominence of missionaries in the field of education was markedly reduced in the recommendations.

The indigenous schools were proposed to be given encouragement by giving suitable grants.

A religious neutrality was advocated, although opening of separated institutions for Hindus and Muslims was not barred.

The Commission earnestly advocated "to declare the elementary education of these masses, its provision, extension and improvement, to be that part of the educational system to which the strenuous effort of the state should now be directed in a still larger measure than here to fore." But unfortunately, the progress of primary education during the period under review was not encouraging. The primary reasons are discussed below :

(1) *Failure to introduce Compulsory Primary Education :*
The Commission did not recommend anything on this aspect, although there was a demand for compulsory primary education. In fact, the Maharaja of Baroda introduced, as an experimental measure, compulsory primary education in one of the divisions of his state. But the Government argued that the British Government, being a body of foreigners, could not compel the local people to send their children to schools. The local people hardly realised the importance of

education. So in the absence of compulsion the primary education could not make a rapid progress.

(2) *Immaturity of Local Bodies* : It is observed that the transfer of Primary Education in the hands of the local bodies was made on several considerations. But the responsibility of giving primary education to an overwhelming mass of illiterate people was too heavy a burden to be shouldered by the newly formed local bodies. Lord Ripon, in taking this bold venture, had pointed out that the experiment would succeed only —(a) if adequate resources were made available, (b) if transfer of duties involving additional expenditure was simultaneously followed by transfer of adequate additional resources and (c) if Government officers realised that the system really opened to them a fairer field for the exercise of administrative and directive energy than the more autocratic system which it superseded. But these conditions were never fulfilled. The result was a slow advance. It is worth mentioning here that even under this dismal condition, the local bodies did a good work. Their contribution to primary education was Rs. 24·9 lakhs in 1891 and rose to Rs. 46·1 lakhs in 1901, while the Government contribution rose from Rs. 16·77 lakhs to Rs. 16·98 lakhs only. But even then the amount was by far inadequate to meet the needs. The resources of the local bodies were limited. Thus they continued to carry on the immense load with their inadequate resources. The result was that the primary schools continued to run in a moribund state and all major lines of progress were sealed.

() *Disregard to Indigenous Schools* : The period under review was remarkable in witnessing the indigenous schools to die out. The Hunter's Commission, no doubt, pointed out the necessity of reforming the village schools. But it was perhaps the greatest blunder to create a new array of primary schools with a very scanty Government contribution, instead of reviving the existing elementary schools. This involved a waste of national energy and money. The potentiality of these institutions were neglected mainly owing to the general antipathy of the British Officers towards all what was "native". As an inevitable result these prospective schools

practically disappeared by 1901. On the other hand, the new set of primary schools, poorly financed and managed, could not even compensate for this loss.

In spite of this dismal state of circumstances, the official enterprise brought about improvement in certain aspects of primary education during the period under review, which cannot altogether be disregarded. These are discussed below :

1. *School Buildings* : Following the principle of giving the first parliamentary grant in England for school buildings, the Education Department gave liberal grants for the construction of buildings of primary schools. All primary schools could not however, be provided with their own buildings owing to financial stringency. So some of the schools continued to be held in public places like temples, mosques etc. The practice of holding classes in teachers' houses however stopped.

2. *Admission of low-caste and girl students* : A significant change in primary education began to appear by the admission of low-caste and girl students in the primary schools.

3. *Teacher's Training* : The quality of the teachers of primary schools was improved by giving training to them.

4. *New methods of teaching* : During the period between 1882 and 1902, the monitorial system, introduced earlier was abolished, following its abolition in England due to financial insolvency. Here in India financial crisis continued. So the result was unsatisfactory. The standard of teaching, however, improved much because of the trained and better educated teachers' new techniques of teaching and better equipments. On the other hand, the new schools with a large number of pupils could not afford to give the same amount of individual attention as the small indigenous schools could provide to their limited number of students.

5. *Use of printed text-books* : Printed text-books were not used in the indigenous school. The new primary schools gradually came to use printed books. By 1900 the system of using printed books became universal.

6. *Curriculum* : The officials had a definite leaning on a variety of subjects while the parents of the pupils like a simple curriculum with the three R's. Again, the ability of teachers to deal with the new subjects was limited. Under these three conflicting factors, the officials succeeded in having their own way. By 1901-1902 the curriculum of primary schools included a number of subjects like history, geography, hygiene, agriculture, manual work, drawing, singing and recitation.

Hence, we can obviously state that the period between 1882 and 1902 showed gradual expansion in the field of primary education. The Hunter's Commission of 1882 strove to achieve the spread of elementary education among the masses and it can be said to have nearly succeeded in achieving this end. The downward infiltration theory, advocated by a few, was of no avail.

CHAPTER 4

ADAM'S PLAN FOR A NATIONAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

Q. 1. Discuss how William Adam was called upon to make a survey of indigenous system of education and write a note on his plan for a national system of education.

Ans. The educational policy of Lord William Bentinck, the Governor-General of India was mainly based on the recommendation of Macaulay in his famous minute written on 2nd February, 1835. Bentinck was a believer in Western education. So he whole-heartedly accepted Macaulay's recommendations and passed orders in resolution on 7th March, 1835. The salient features of the proclamation are noted below :

1. It was declared that the intention of the British Government ought to be the promotion of European literature and science among the Indians. Hence all funds appropriated for the purpose of education would be best employed in English education alone.

2. It was not intended to abolish the indigenous school or colleges. It was, however, hoped that the native population would be inclined to avail themselves of the opportunity by the new policy.

3. The General Committee was directed not to spend any further amount in printing oriental works.

4. It was specifically directed that the sum of money which would be placed at the disposal of the Committee should be hereafter employed in imparting to the Indian population, a knowledge of English literature and science through the medium of English.

So far but the higher education in schools and colleges were concerned. Bentinck's Proclamation thwarted the development of vernacular and oriental classics. Sole importance was given to English literature and English language. This no doubt reflects a ruler-like superciliousness, and an antipathy towards the oriental culture, on the attitude of the authority. On the other hand, it cannot be denied that Bentinck's Educational policy marked a turning point in the history of education in India. It was also a positive step in solving the impasses created by the dispute among the members of the General Committee, popularly known as the "Anglicist Classicist controversy". The Proclamation also completely left the elementary education out of consideration, Bentinck, however, took certain steps in this direction. But they were ultimately ineffective.

As an immediate effect of Bentinck's educational policy, English education made rapid progress in the country. English schools and colleges developed throughout the territory. Zilla schools were started in the important towns of the Presidencies. Since any new expenditure on vernacular education was prohibited, vernacular was, so to say, ostracised in these

institutions. Naturally, vernacular and the oriental languages were neglected to a great extent.

On the other hand, interest for western education grew up, partly for having a distinctive mark in the society, and partly for gaining privilege in getting positions in the Government. While high school and college education was highly encouraged, the elementary education was utterly neglected. The result was that only a small privileged section of people could receive higher education, the teeming millions of the rural area being left under the darkness of illiteracy.

As observed before, Bentinck did not altogether disregard elementary education. He had an intention to deal this aspect of education separately. The Downward Filtration Theory was already advocated by Macaulay. Bentinck also wanted to spread education widely among the mass of population. So immediately after his educational reform at the higher level, he took up the cause of elementary education. With this end in view, he appointed William Adam, an enthusiastic missionary and educationist to make a survey of the system of indigenous education in Bengal. After a thorough survey of the indigenous schools for three years, Adam submitted an elaborate report in 1838, and made certain specific recommendations for effecting improvement thereof.

Adam's Report gave a detailed analysis of the various indigenous and elementary institutions. He differentiated three main categories of schools :

- (i) Indigenous elementary school.
- (ii) Indigenous school of learning.
- (iii) Elementary school not indigenous.

The Report also described the course of studies, status of the teachers, their qualification quality and method of instruction, condition of female education etc. According to him, there were about one lakh elementary schools and the general literacy ranged around 7%.

Adam pointed out that it would be a great mistake to ignore the existing system of indigenous education and to

concentrate all activities to the higher education. He depreciated the pet theory of downward filtration, admitted by the rulers and held that spread of education among the mass would be impossible unless the educational system which existed long before the British rule improved. He also suggested the following measures for improvement of the indigenous schools.

(1) As a pilot enterprise a thorough educational survey should be introduced in one or a few selected districts.

(2) In those districts a thorough educational activities should be made, in order to give a trial to his scheme.

(3) A series of books should be written for the students and the teachers.

(4) The quality of teachers of the elementary schools should be improved. For this, Normal Schools should be opened for training of teachers.

(5) In order to increase the efficiency of the teachers, Inspectors should be appointed to supervise the work of the teachers.

(6) Rent free land should be endowed to the village schools and their teacher so as to encourage the latter to settle in the villages and to teach the village children.

(7) Rewards for passing the examinations should be given to the teachers as a token of encouragement.

(8) An examiner will be appointed in each district. He will act as the Chief Executive Officer and will be responsible for executing the scheme in the district successfully.

Adam expressed his firm conviction that his scheme would lay the foundation of a national system of education in the country. He further held that the efficiency of higher education cannot be secured unless the requirement of pupils are met from these effectively taught in the next lower grade. A deep foundation is essential for constructing a mighty superstructure.

Adam's Report had immense possibilities. It had the prospect of revolutionising the educational system in India.

But unfortunately, the authorities summarily rejected the scheme, chiefly on financial consideration. Lord Aucland, the then Governor-General, considered the plan expensive and utopian and too immature to be implemented at that stage.

The rejection of Adam's Report had an effect in accelerating the missionary activities in the field of elementary education in India. The earlier apprehension of the Company that the missionary activities might be resented by the Indians proved to be wrong. The alienation between the Company's officers and the Missionaries was removed and the missionary enterprise was encouraged.

Q. 2. Trace the beginning of English education in Bengal.

Ans. Exigencies of administration and commercial intercourse forced the Indians, particularly the residents of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras to cultivate the knowledge of English in the eighteenth century, or even earlier. But English was neither spoken nor understood by the Indians to any larger extent till the close of the eighteenth century. Even in Bengal where the British wielded the political power, there was no regular arrangement for teaching English to the Indians. But with the opening of the nineteenth century there was a growing appreciation of the value of English as a medium of culture on the part of the educated Bengalees, specially the Hindus. Schools for teaching English were accordingly founded in Calcutta and its neighbourhood. A school was established at Bhawanipur in Calcutta in A. D. 1800 and another at Chinsura in 1814. It is not, however, till 1817 that we find a concerted attempt for the diffusion of English education in Bengal. Two notable institutions which did yeomen's work in this direction were : (i) Calcutta School Book Society and (ii) Hindu School both founded in 1817. The object of the former was to make available good text books, both in English and Indian languages, suitable for schools. The society undertook to prepare such text-books and to print and publish them. They were sold at cheap price and sometimes distributed free.

Soon after the establishment of the society the members of the committee felt the need of good schools for teaching English. As a result of their efforts, a meeting was held at the Town Hall of Calcutta on September 1, 1818. It was resolved in this meeting to establish a separate society named the Calcutta School Society. Its object was defined to be to help and improve the schools already existing in Calcutta and to establish new schools according to need.

But by far the most important institution that helped the spread of English Education in Bengal was the Hindu College established in Calcutta on January 20, 1817. It appears that about the beginning of May 1816, Mr. Baidyanath Mukherjee, a well-known citizen of Calcutta, saw Sir Hyde East, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Calcutta, and informed him that many of the leading Hindus were desirous of forming an establishment for the education of their children in a liberal manner as practised by Europeans and desired him to hold a meeting for the purpose. The meeting was held on May 14, 1816, and it decided to establish a college housed in its own building, with the object of teaching Bengali, Hindusthani and English languages and then Persians, if they desired, arithmetic, history, geography, astronomy, mathematics and in time, as the fund increases English belles-letters, poetry etc. Stress was also to be laid on teaching the English system of morals.

Anyone who goes through the news papers of the period cannot fail to be struck with the genuine enthusiasm which the foundation of these schools evoked in the mind of the public, and a sincere desire to multiply their number in order to meet a keenly felt need for liberal education. There were no less than twenty-five such schools in Calcutta alone before 1835, when the Government ultimately decided to extend its patronage to English education. Large number of such institutions were also founded outside Calcutta. In short, the excitement for western education continued unabated. The institutions were all founded by private efforts, and both Englishmen and Indians co-operated in this work.

The Christians Missionaries founded the Baptist Mission

College at Serampore in 1818. They also founded several schools one of which was named after Rev. Duff, and its expenses were met out of endowments for Scottish Churches. Some schools were founded by private individuals both Indian and European. David Hare, Raja Rammohan Roy and G. A. Turnbull each founded a school. The Lord Bishop of Calcutta established a college in 1820. The Oriental Seminary was founded by Gaurmohan Auddy in 1828. The students of Hindu College took a leading part in establishing new schools and in 1831 there were six morning schools in different parts of Calcutta, founded and managed by them.

Q. 3. Discuss the British policy towards upto 1835.

Ans. The antiquity of Indian civilisation impressed the western mind in the later half of the 18th century. Warren Hastings established in 1781 Calcutta Madrasa with the object of promoting the study of Arabic and Persian languages and the Muslim Law. The Sanskrit College at Benares was founded in 1791 by Jonathan Duncan, Resident of Benares, for the preservation of the laws, literature and religion of the Hindus. In the meantime the missionaries also tried to take a leading part in fostering education in India. They had also the aim of propagating the Christianity in this country, though it was not favoured by the authorities of the East India Company.

At the time of the Charter Act of 1813 the Company decided to spend one lakh of rupees for the expansion of education in India every year. But between 1813 and 1823 the East India Company did not develop any educational policy in India. The money sanctioned in 1813 remained unspent and it was not until July 17, 1823, that the General Committee of Public Instruction was formed and was put in charge of the existing Government institutions and of the one lakh grant. The object of the Committee was to equip itself with facts about the state of education in the territories under Bengal Presidency and to suggest ways and means for better instruction of the people. In the meantime English education has gained immense popularity in this country. But the general policy of the East India Company was to

encourage traditional learning in India by giving pecuniary aid, and not to interfere with the education or to suggest alternative methods, for fear that this might contravene the policies of religious neutrality. The foundation of the Sanskrit College at Calcutta by Lord Amherst in 1823 represents the continuation of the same traditional policy of the East India Company. The persistent advocacy of useful knowledge by the Court of Directors in their Despatches from 1824 onwards was inspired by the influence of James Mill, Bentham's disciple, who embodied in his Despatches the recurrent theme of utility as the only touch-stone of education pressed upon the Indian Government to follow the principle of utility in all matters relating to education. This Directorial encouragement of the diffusion of useful knowledge continued right up to Bentinck's resolution of 1835.

Independently of the official attitude there was growing up in Calcutta and its neighbourhood a disposition to learn English throughout the entire period. Raja Rammohan Roy and Raja Radhakanta Dev, though they belonged to quite opposite poles, argued for English education. In short, the ground was already prepared for the introduction of English as the medium of instruction long before the arrival of Lord Macaulay and Lord Bentinck in India.

Lord Bentinck imbued with the ideas of Bentham and Mill, watched carefully the indications of the time—the thoughts and disposition of Hindus to learn English—and he utilised his power finely in actually moulding the process them at work.

Macaulay was a mixture of the Benthamite theory of legislation and Evangelical vehemance in sentiment. His *Minute on Education* was brilliant though he tried to disguise the thinners of his legal reason by taking refuge in emphatic rhetoric. His main thesis was that all the learning of the East was nothing beside the metaphysics of Locke and physics of Newton, and that it was the torch of Western learning that could illuminate the Indian mind submerged in superstition and ignorance. His contention was that English was the language spoken by the ruling class. It was likely to

become the language of commerce throughout the seats of the East. His view was that the teaching of Sanskrit or Arabic was of no use to the people and the Government should spend all the money at its disposal for the spread of English language and Western sciences. Lord Bentinck approved of the view of Lord Macaulay. A resolution was passed on March 7, 1835. It was provided that the greatest object of the British Government ought to be the promotion of European literature and science among the natives of India and that all funds appropriated for the purposes of education would be best employed on English education alone. While the colleges of oriental studies were not abolished, the practice of supporting their students during their period of education was to be discontinued.

The Government funds were also not to be spent in imparting to the Indians a knowledge of English literature and science. There was criticism of the Government's policy by scholars like H. H. Wilson but nothing came out of it. It was declared by the Government that there was to be no direct or indirect teaching of Christianity through the schools and colleges in the country.

A Government resolution of 1844 provided that for public employment in every case preference would be given to those who had been educated in Western science and were familiar with the English language. This new policy of the British Government gave a strong impetus for the spread of English education in India.

Q. 4. What do you know of the Fort William College.

Ans Fort William College was established in Calcutta by Lord Wellesley in 1800 for developing the mental faculties of the junior civil servants in the company's service when they first arrived in India. It provided for a three year's educational course which was comprehensive and included the study of Modern History and Literature, Classical History and Literature, Laws of Nations, Ethics and Jurisprudence as well as of Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian Literature, Urdu, Bengali and Marathi, the different codes of Laws followed in India, History of India and the Regulation which has been

passed from time to time by the Governor-General in Council. The college was to be managed by a Governing Body consisting of the members of the Supreme Council and of the Judges of the Sudder Courts. The Governor-General himself was the Patron and Visitor. The college was to be controlled by a provost who was always to be a clergyman of the Church of England and a Vice-Provost. Many professors were also appointed and placed in charge of the teaching of various subjects. The college was run on this elaborate and comprehensive basis for about seven years.

Fort William College trained during this period of seven years several batches of Civil Servants and the quality of its products like Charles Metcalfe and William Butterworth Bayley amply justified its creation and existence.

But Lord Wellesley has started the college without waiting for the formal sanction of the Court of Directors who showed their grudge by refusing the necessary sanction and starting the Haileybury College near London in 1805 for training the entrants to the Indian Civil Service. The Fort William College was reduced in 1807 to a mere seminary for teaching the Indian languages and was finally abolished in 1854.

CHAPTER 5

IMPACT OF STANLEY'S DESPATCH, HUNTER'S COMMISSION AND GOKHALES' BILLS ON PRIMARY EDUCATION

Q. 1. Write a note on Stanley's Despatch.

Ans. Sepoy Mutiny in 1857 brought about the termination of East India Company's rule in India. The administration was taken over by the Crown and Lord Stanley was

appointed Secretary of State to replace the President of the Board of Control. On assuming office, he made a further review of the existing educational policy and recorded his observations and recommendations in a memorandum which is known as Stanley's Despatch. It was not radically different from the Wood's Despatch. He, however, made certain specific recommendations with regard to Primary Education, which are as follows :

(a) The Despatch observed that the system of grants-in-aid had failed to incite adequate interest in Primary Education. So, he advocated direct control and management of the State in providing Primary Education. This was considered to be more effective in spreading mass education.

(b) Since the system of grants-in-aid was discouraged, the Despatch suggested to levy, if necessary, a tax and land-rent in order to defray the expenses of Primary Education under direct State management.

(c) It also favoured the best utilisation of the indigenous schools and teachers who were more familiar and who commanded more respect of the local people.

(d) It advised the Government to open more training schools for training of teachers.

This Despatch aptly attempted to amend the lapses in Wood's Despatch so far as the Primary Education was concerned. But unfortunately the question of direct instrumentality of the State was viewed with controversy. Opinion differed as to the agency to be entrusted with the task of providing elementary education. The Despatch, however, rightly pointed out the need of levying tax, for it was hardly possible to meet the entire expenditure on Primary Education otherwise.

Q. 2. State the principal recommendations of the Hunter's Commission of 1882 for the improvement of Primary and Secondary Education in India. To what extent were these implemented ?

Or, Give a critical appraisal of the educational importance of the Hunter's Commission.

Ans. The recommendations of the Wood's Despatch of 1854 did not bring about any material improvement in the Primary Education of the country. The position and the role of the Missionaries were also not clearly defined. As such Lord Ripon in 1882 appointed the 'Indian Education Commission' with Sir W. W. Hunter as its Chairman. This Commission was popularly known as 'The Hunter's Commission of 1882'. The Commission was appointed with a view to "enquiring into the working of the existing system of public instruction and to the further extension of that system on a popular basis." The Commission was also asked to advise on the following issues :

- (1) The role and function of the Govt. in the different stages of education.
- (2) The policy of the Govt. with regard to the private institutions.
- (3) The place of missionaries in the field of education.
- (4) Whether the Govt. should withdraw from direct educational enterprise.

The Commission advised the Government on the general policies and also made elaborate recommendations on the primary, secondary and collegiate education. As regards withdrawal of the Govt from the direct educational enterprise the Commission suggested that the Govt. should not only "curtail the expansion of its institutions, but should also withdraw from direct enterprise as soon as a suitable agency, public or private becomes available to carry on the work". Regarding the role of the missionaries, the Commission was, however, not in favour of withdrawal of the direct departmental agency in favour of the missionaries. As regards Primary Education, the Commission recommended that the Government should completely withdraw from the Primary Education and leave it to the local self-governing bodies like Local Boards and Municipalities. Similarly, the Commission recommended a gradual withdrawal from the direct management of Secondary Education, and encouragement of private institutions by introducing a well-laid-out system of grants-in-aid.

The Commission also made detailed recommendations on various other aspects of primary, secondary and collegiate education, which are summarised below :—

Primary Education : The recommendations regarding Primary Education may be grouped into six heads, viz.,—

1. *Policy*—(i) Primary Education should be regarded as instruction of the masses'. The medium of instruction should be vernacular and the subjects taught should have a practical bearing on the future positions in the students' life.

(ii) The Government should regard the elementary education of the masses as an important part of the state system of education. It should, therefore, pay a more active attention to the provision extension and improvement of primary Education.

(iii) In selecting employees in lower positions in the Govt. preference shall be given to literate persons.

(iv) Primary Education should be extended in backward areas particularly in those places which are mostly inhabited by the aboriginals.

(v) Religious neutrality should be maintained in the field of education.

2. *Legislation and Administration*—The Commission recommended that the onus of Primary Education should be entrusted with the District Boards and School Boards through legislation.

3. *Indigenous Schools*—In this regard, the Commission realised the comparative inferiority of the indigenous schools like "pathshalas" and suggested the following measures for their improvement :—

(i) The local bodies like the School Boards or District Boards should be assigned the work of helping the indigenous schools.

(ii) Except in backward areas, aids should be given on the basis of results of examinations. But this was not a very

happy proposition, as it was clearly a bar against universal education, so wisely aimed at.

(iii) Attempt should be made for a steady improvement of the indigenous schools with least interference with their managers, and teachers, or with the curriculum.

(iv) The schools master should be given training and encouraged to bring their relatives and successors under regular training.

(v) Standard of examinations should conform to the indigenous system of instruction e.g., the native arithmetic, mensuration, etc.

(vi) Useful subjects should be introduced gradually and encouraged by special grants.

4. *School administration :*

Under this head the recommendations were as follows :—

(i) There may be no uniformity of standards in all the provinces. It should depend upon the local conditions.

(ii) The instruction should be simple and adapted to the environment. These should be in vernacular languages.

(iii) Practical subjects, e.g., indigenous arithmetic etc. should be taught.

(iv) The school management should have freedom to choose text-books.

(v) Hours of duty should be so elastic as to fit in with the hours of domestic duties of the rural children.

(vi) There should be a programme of physical development through local games and exercise.

(vii) Aided schools should be inspected in situation.

(viii) School houses and furniture should be simple.

5. *Training of Teachers :*

(i) Normal Schools should be opened for the training of teachers.

(ii) A special manual should be prepared for the guidance of teachers.

(iii) Teachers should be appointed by the Boards subjects to the approval of the Education Department.

6. *Finance* : The Commission observed that the main responsibility of spreading Primary Education rested upon the Local Boards and that the Govt. should play a subordinate role giving suitable grant-in-aid. But the Commission did not lay down any extent of such grant-in-aid, for this would depend on the local circumstances and the extent of local funds raised. However, the Commission's recommendations were chiefly as under :

(1) Specific fund should be created for primary education.

(2) The accounts of primary education fund in municipal areas should be separated from those for the rural areas.

(3) Local funds should be employed mainly for primary education and not usually for secondary and collegiate education.

(4) Government should supplement the local funds by suitable grants-in-aid.

(5) The cost of maintenance and repair of school houses should be borne by the Local Boards or Municipalities.

The Report of the Hunter Commission is an important document in the history of education in India. It made some valuable recommendations. It suggested extension of Primary Education through legislation. *Secondly*, it laid great emphasis on the private enterprise, which was so long neglected.

Some of the recommendations were readily accepted by the Government. For example, the scheme of local self-government was introduced by Lord Ripon in spite of opposition from the Provincial Government. He realised that it was a waste of power not to utilise the services of the growing intelligent class. Primary Education was declared to be an obligatory duty of these local bodies.

The recommendations regarding indigenous schools were, however, not accepted in toto. Only the system of payment by results was adopted. In fact, the majority of the indigenous schools died out. The onus of giving primary education

to an overwhelming mass of illiterate people was too much a burden to be shouldered by the newly formed immature local bodies. The Commission succeeded in introducing vernacular as medium of instruction.

Q. 3. Discuss the contribution of Sri Gopal Krishna Gokhale in the development of primary education in India.

Ans. Lord Curzon's educational policy aimed at an expansion and improvement of Primary Education. But in practice, the principle of qualitative improvement was given preference and that of compulsory primary education was set aside. This was viewed with dissatisfaction by the Indians. Public opinion gradually gained ground in favour of compulsory primary education. Sri Gopal Krishna Gokhale, the eminent educationist of Bombay took the lead and moved a resolution in the Imperial Legislative Council in 1910. The chief ground of his opposition was that the question of qualitative improvement was a paradox in a country where not more than 5% of the population were literate.

In his resolution, Gokhale demanded, (i) that a beginning should be made in the direction of making primary education free and compulsory throughout the country ; and (ii) that a mixed commission of officials and non-officials be appointed at an early date to frame concrete proposals. But he withdrew this resolution on an assurance from the Government of a careful review and consideration of his proposals. As a result, the Central Education Department was created and the Provincial Governments were directed to take steps for the spread of Primary Education.

This half-hearted step could hardly satisfy Gokhale and his followers, and Gokhale resumed his campaign a year later. In March, 1911, he introduced a Bill for the spread of Primary Education in the Imperial Legislative Council. Being Conscious of the apathetic attitude of the Government, he made a very modest proposal in his Bill. The proposals were framed mainly in the light of Compulsory Education Act of 1870 and 1876 in England. It may be of interest to quote extracts from the Bill which will show that only a minimum demand was put forth—

"The object of this Bill was to provide for the gradual introduction of the principal of compulsion into the elementary educational system of the country. The experience of other countries has established beyond dispute the fact that the only effective way to ensure a wide diffusion of elementary education among the mass of the people is by a resort to compulsion in some form or the other. And the time has come when a beginning should at least be made in this direction in India."

The main provision sought for in the Bill were as follows :

(i) The Bill was of a purely permissive character and its provisions would be applied to areas notified by the local bodies, with the permission of the Government.

(ii) The local bodies should share such proportion of the increased expenditure as would be determined by the Government by rules.

(iii) For the present, only boys between the age limits of 6 and 10 years and not girls would come under the provisions of the Bill.

(iv) All such boys should be given compulsory primary education in an area where already 33% of the boys were receiving education.

(v) The poor parents should be exempted from paying fees.

(vi) The expenditure should be met by imposing education cess.

Just after a year, in March, 1912, the Bill came up for discussion in the Legislature. But as already half expected by Gokhale himself, even this modest claim was turned down by majority of votes after a debate over two days. The official members formed a clear majority and many of the non-official members were also against the Bill. So the result could well be foreseen by Gokhale. That is why he declared in his magnificent speech in the debate—"I know that my Bill will be thrown out before the day closes." He added, '...We, of the present generation in India, only hope to serve

our country by our failures. The men and women, who will be privileged to serve her by their successes will come later... We shall be entitled to feel that we have done our duty and when the call of duty is clear, it is better even to labour and fail than not to labour at all."

Thus, the zeal and earnestness with which Gokhale struggled for the introduction of Compulsory Primary Education, ended, in vain. But really, his attempt was not a total failure. It aroused a mass reaction throughout the country. The Bill received enormous support from all the political parties. Public opinion demanded an explicit declaration of the educational policy of the Government. Government could not entirely ignore the growing public demand and had to think about taking some positive steps in this direction. The action of the Government was hastened by the august visit of King George V to India in 1912. His Majesty, on this occasion, sanctioned a recurring grant of Rs. 50 lakhs in furtherance of popular education. As a result, the Government declared its intention to spread Primary Education in spite of its having opposed Gokhale's Bill earlier.

We may conclude by saying after Gokhale that his Bill "served the country by its failure". It was Gokhale's first resolution that led to the creation of the Central Education Department. His Bill intensified public agitation and aroused in Government a sense of duty with regard to mass education. It is much due to Gokhale's movement that Government ultimately declared its new policy on education in 1913 and took active steps in the spread of Primary Education during the successive five years.

Q. 4. Examine the significance of Gokhale's Bill in light of developments that followed in the field of Primary Education.

Ans. A countryside resentment was expressed in the wake of the rejection of Gokhale's Bill on Primary Education in the Legislative Council in 1911. Public opinion demanded an explicit declaration by the Government on their educational policy. Government could not altogether ignore the growing public demand, and had to think about taking some

positive steps in this direction. The action of the Government was expedited by the August visit of King George V to India in 1912. His Majesty, on this occasion sanctioned a recurring grant of Rs. 50 lacs in furtherance of a popular education in the country. As a result, the Government asserted its intention to spread Primary Education in spite of its having opposed Gokhale's Bill earlier. The Government of India passed the Resolution of 1913, adopting certain important measures in the field of Primary Education.

The main features of the Resolution in respect of Primary Education are given below :

(i) The Resolution accepted, as a matter of policy, a predominant claim of Primary Education on the public funds. But, on financial and administrative grounds, the principle of Compulsory Primary Education was not accepted.

(ii) The Resolution, however, expressed the desire of the Government to the widest possible expansion of Primary Education on a voluntary basis, by increasing the grants considerably.

(iii) Looking forward to the need of the areas where there was no primary school as yet, the Resolution did not agree to dispense with fees entirely at the moment. But it directed the local governments to apply "the principle of free elementary education to the poorer and backward sections of the population".

(iv) It pointed out the need of improvement and expansion of the Middle Vernacular Schools which would produce teachers for primary school.

(v) It stressed upon the extension of facilities for the training of primary school teachers.

(vi) It recommended encouragement to indigenous schools by giving liberal grants.

(vii) It suggested a revision of curriculum to include more practical subjects.

(viii) It pointed out the necessity of improving the condition of the houses and buildings of primary schools.

The Resolution already expressed the desire of the Government to add about 91,000 primary schools to the existing one lakh and to double the 4.25 million pupils receiving Primary Education at that time.

The actual progress in the Primary Education was not at all encouraging. The expansion in the number of schools was very slow. This partly due to the absence of compulsion and partly due to the official preference of a qualitative improvement to a quantitative improvement. Even, this qualitative improvement was not achieved to the desired degree. Only a satisfactory improvement was made in the training of primary teachers. A large number of training schools came to be conducted by the Government. There was practically no change in the service conditions of the school teachers of the school buildings. The proposed changes in curriculum did also remain in papers.

Q. 5. What was the impart of Lord Stanley's Despatch of 1859 on the extension of Primary Education ?

Ans. The foundation of the British rule in India was greatly shaken by the outbreak of Sepoy Mutiny in 1857. The administration was taken over by the Crown and Lord Stanley was appointed Secretary of State. On assuming office, he made a further review of the existing educational policy and recorded his observation and recommendation in a memorandum which was honour as Stanley's Despatch. His Despatch greatly reaffirmed the principles of Wood's Despatch. He made certain recommendations with regard to Primary Education.

The Despatch observed that the system of grants-in-aid had failed to incite adequate interest in Primary Education. So, he advocated direct control and management of the State in providing Primary Education. This was considered to be more effective in spreading mass education. Since the system of grants-in-aid was discouraged the Despatch suggested levy, if necessary, a tax and land cess in order to defray the expenses for Primary Education under direct State management. It also favoured the best utilisation of indigenous schools and teachers who were more familiar and commanded

more respect of the local people. It advised the Government to open more training schools for the training of teachers.

This despatch aptly attempted to amend the lapses in Wood's Despatch so far as the Primary Education was concerned. But unfortunately, the question of direct instrumentality of the State was viewed with controversy. Opinion differed as to the agency to be entrusted with the task of providing elementary education. The Despatch, however, rightly pointed out the need of levying tax for it was hardly possible to meet the entire expenditure on primary education.

In fact, Stanley, in his Despatch of 1859 made no fresh recommendations but accepted the recommendations of Wood's Despatch. He brought about a little change in the field of Primary Education of our country.

CHAPTER 6

BASIC EDUCATION

Q. 1. Write an essay on the system of basic education.

Or, Describe the scheme of education envisaged by the Basic System. What are its failings and strong points ?

Ans. Introduction : Under this Provincial Autonomy, Congress Ministries assumed offices in seven Provinces. Immediately thereafter, the Congress was confronted with the problem of Primary Education. On the one hand, there was a strong public resentment against the existing system of education and on the other, a demand for universal free and compulsory primary education. Moreover, there was a stringency of funds. The position was further complicated by the decision to introduce a total prohibition. This meant a further loss of easily available revenue. The solution to this problem was indicated by Mahatma Gandhi in a series of articles in 'Harijan', in which he expounded a new plan of mass education.

Gandhiji's plan of Basic Education : In his articles, Gandhiji condemned the existing system of education as too much anglicised. This not only prevented percolation of knowledge to the mass, but also created a permanent barrier between the highly 'educated few' and the 'uneducated many'. The system rendered the educated class unfit for productive work and 'made them strangers in their own land', because it had no bearing on real currents of life. With this criticism, Gandhiji put forward his plan of basic education, which is briefly stated as follows :

(1) Primary education should be extended to seven years.

(2) The course should include general knowledge upto matriculation standard less English plus a useful vocation.

(3) The vocation shall serve a two-fold purpose :—to develop the pupil's entire personality and to enable him to pay for the expense of his education by his own labour.

(4) By the inclusion of profit-earning vocation the plan provided an answer to the financial problem in mass education.

(5) The State should guarantee the employment of the students in their respective vocation or buying their products so that they can earn their bread after coming out.

National Education Conference : Gandhiji's plan met with severe criticism. Controversies arose over the various aspects of the plan. Specially, the idea of "self-support" was criticised strongly. It was said that it aimed to meet the problem of stringency of funds created by prohibition of drinks. But this was far from truth. He asserted that the proposed system was a need for the country. It had nothing to do with the loss of revenue. He also observed that the educational problem was "unfortunately mixed up with the disappearance of drink revenues". He visualised the futility of the existing system of education during the past years and now he actually saw its ineffectiveness under the present circumstances. However, in view of the controversies, an All India National Conference on Education was convened at

Wardha in October 1937 to examine the new system of education proposed by Gandhiji. The delegates included the Education Ministers of the seven Provinces and prominent educationists of the country. The following resolutions were passed in the Conference:

(i) That in the opinion of this Conference free and compulsory education be provided for seven years on a nationwide scale.

(ii) That the medium of instruction be the mother tongue.

(iii) That the Conference endorses the proposal made by Mahatma Gandhi that the process of education throughout this period should centre round some form of manual productive work, and that all other abilities to be developed, or training to be given, should, as far as possible, be integrally related to the central handicraft chosen with due regard to the environment of the child.

(iv) That the Conference expects that this system of education will be gradually able to cover the remuneration of the teachers.

A Committee under the presidentship of Dr. Zakir Hossain was appointed to prepare a detailed syllabus on the lines of the above resolutions. The Committee was popularly known as the Zakir Hossain Committee.

The Committee submitted its report in a short period of two months. The Committee, in course of its report, laid special emphasis on the inclusion of chosen crafts as the core of the curriculum, and also made valuable suggestions regarding supervision and administration, and the training of teachers etc.

Outlines of the Wardha Scheme

1. **Curriculum**: The subjects recommended for the Basic Education are given below:

Craft-work: The Committee considered that education through some suitable form of productive works is the most effective was to provide an integral, all-sided education. Psy-

chologically, it relieves the children of the tyranny of a purely academic instruction. It leads to the "literacy of the whole personality. Socially, it would break the barrier between manual and intellectual workers and truly inculcate the dignity of labour. Economically, it would increase the productive capacity of the pupils and give them a sense of self-reliance. One or more of the following basic crafts were recommended :

(i) Spinning and weaving, (ii) Carpentry, (iii) Agriculture, (iv) Fruit and Vegetable gardening, (v) Leather work. The crafts should be so chosen as to provide natural points of correlation with the important human interest and activities.

Mother Tongue : The Committee viewed the mother tongue as the foundation of all education. So emphasis was given on a proper learning of the mother tongue.

Mathematics : This was considered is an important subject. The pupils should develop a capacity to solve the problems relating to numbers and geometry arising out of his craft-work and daily life.

Social Studies : The objects of social studies are : (a) to develop a proper understanding of the social and geographical environments, (b) to develop an interest in the progress of mankind with special reference to India, (c) to develop a sense of good citizenship, (d) to develop a love of motherland, (e) to develop a sense of respect for the world religions.

Besides, General Science, Drawing and Designing, Hindustani and Music are also recommended as the subjects to be taught. All these subjects, however, would be taught in correlation with the basic craft. The report explained the method of correlation of these subjects with the main craft.

2. **Supervision and Examination :** The report recommended an efficient system of supervision. Not mere inspection, but a sympathetic co-operation and help should be the object of supervision. The report considered the existing system of examination as neither valid nor complete. There should be

an all comprehensive test, and the efficiency of the school as a whole should be judged by a sample achievement test of the pupil's achievements in the basic handicrafts. The contribution made by the teachers and students to the improvement of the community life around should also be considered as a measure of progress.

3. *Training of Teachers* : The training of teachers in the special ideology of this new scheme, was considered as a very important aspect of the basic education. In this connection, the report sounded a note of warning. Although, the scheme envisaged the idea of self-sufficiency, the teachers must not be too enthusiastic to extract the maximum amount of labour out of the pupils. This has the danger of reducing their intellectual and moral efficiency.

Progress of Basic Education : The report of the Zakir Hossain Committee was submitted in 1937. During the next year, Basic Education was adopted in several Provinces. But due to the War and political movements, the Congress Ministers resigned office in 1940. As a result, the scheme received a great set-back during the period from 1940 to 1945. With the formation of the Congress Ministry in 1946, the scheme received a new impetus. The scheme was put to trial in different Provinces with suitable modifications according to the reports of various Committees. In 1938-1939 the Central Advisory Board of Education set up two Committees on the Basic Education. The Report of these two Committees accepted in principle the original Wardha Scheme and suggested various stages of Basic Education. The Surgent Committee's Report also recommended the introduction of Compulsory Primary Education of the lines recommended by these two Committees. It recommended two stages of Basic Education, viz., Junior Basic (Age group 6-11) and Senior Basic (age-group 11-14 years). After independence in 1947, the Govt. of India and the State Governments accepted the principle of Basic Education as the national pattern of elementary education. Considerable progress has been made in this direction.

Criticism of the Basic Education : The advantages of the Basic Education in course of this discourse have already been indicated. These may now be summarised below :

(1) In this system, knowledge becomes related to life. The various aspects of life are correlated with each other.

(2) Mother-tongue is given the first place, besides its being the medium of instruction.

(3) It brings a harmonious development of the body and mind. Psychologically, it relieves the pupils of the tyranny of a purely academic and theoretical instruction.

(4) Economically considered, it increases the productive capacity of the pupils, and also make them self-reliant.

(5) Socially considered, it tends to break down the existing barriers of prejudice between the intellectual and manual workers. It teaches real dignity of labour.

Experiments made on the Basic Educational System at Champaran revealed striking results. It was found that this system taught pupils common subjects better than that taught in general schools. Pupils taught in a Basic School were more active in co-operative enterprises than those taught in other schools. The experiment proved the efficacy of the system.

In spite of the good features, the scheme of Basic Education was charged for having the following defects :

(1) All subject cannot be taught through a basic craft. It is neither natural nor practical.

(2) Craft-centred education will turn the school into a factory of wage-earning pupils. Undue stress on the craft will frustrate the real purpose of education.

(3) The pupils of the given age-group are too immature to handle vocation.

(4) There is more of sentiment than education in this scheme because the Father of the Nation was the promoter of this.

(5) Village crafts like weaving and carpentry are incongruous with the present age of industrialisation.

(6) It is hardly possible to secure well-trained teachers having expert knowledge on Basic Education.

Conclusion : Notwithstanding the shortcomings the Basic System of Education is 'child-centred', 'craft-centred' and 'teacher-centred' and has, therefore, a definite superiority over the 'book-centred' education. The term 'Basic' has three interpretations. *First*, it provides the basis of national culture. *Secondly*, it is inseparably linked with the basic needs and interests of the child. *Thirdly*, it is correlated with the basic occupation of the community life. It is true that the scheme has no place in the age of industrialisation. But it must be remembered that the scheme is essentially dynamic in nature. It will change with the change of circumstances. It not only provided a training ground for certain services and professions, but acted as an agency for the practical and social education of millions of the rural population of an underdeveloped country like India at the time when it was introduced.

Q. 2. State with good reasons, whether you agree or disagree with the policy of adopting the basic pattern for primary education throughout India.

Ans. The word 'basic' in Basic Education can be interpreted in several ways. *First*, this system of education provides a basis of national culture and is considered to be the basic minimum education for every Indian. Again, the basic craft in this system is considered to satisfy the basic needs of a child's life. Then again, the Basic Education would involve such a vocation as would be linked with the basic occupation of the community. In all cases, however, the essential element in the basic pattern of education is 'learning by doing'.

In order to weigh the efficacy of the basic pattern of education, it is necessary to see the grounds on which Gandhiji *first* took the lead in its favour. He observed that the present system of education did not meet the requirement of the country. English, being the medium of instruc-

tion in the higher branches of learning, had created a barrier between the educated few and the uneducated many. Knowledge was preserved among the former class and they virtually became 'strangers in their own land'. *Secondly*, absence of vocational training in any stage had made the educated class 'unfit for productive work'. *Thirdly*, the expenditure on primary education was a wastage. The children soon forgot what they learnt. Their perfunctory knowledge was of little use to the community. The existing system of education was thus of little benefit to the taxpayers.

The idea of 'learning by doing' is not entirely new in the history of education. As a matter of fact, vocational training occupies a very important place in education. Gandhiji himself had been thinking of this type of education for the last forty years. In his own words, he "felt an irresistible call to make good the charge that the present mode of education is radically wrong from bottom to top."

Advantages of the Basic Pattern of Education : The report of the Zakir Hossain Committee is an invaluable document on the basic education. It expounds the essential features of the scheme and its distinct advantages over the existing system of education. These are discussed below :

1. *An all-round education*—Modern educational concepts have always extolled the merit of educating children through some productive work. Such a system provides a solution to the problem of imparting an all-round education to a child.

2. *Psychological value*—A child is apt to avert a purely academic and dry theoretical course of lesson. Psychologically, therefore, this system "relieves the child from the tyranny" of such lessons. It brings about a harmonious combination of intellectual and practical experience. The child learns to employ his body and mind in perfect co-ordination and thereby acquires a mastery over the subject thus taught. Thus it gives a 'literacy of the whole personality', as compared to a literacy of letters.

3. *Social value*—The project has immense social value.

The participation of the children in practical productive work in education will remove the class-complex existing between the intellectual and manual workers. This barrier of prejudice between the two classes is an anathema to the nation, particularly when it is underdeveloped. This system will also cultivate a true sense of dignity of labour which is "an ethical and moral gain of incalculable nature."

4. *Economic value*—The economical aspect of the scheme is of great importance and has been often a matter of controversy. One of the essential features of the scheme is to make it "self-supporting". *First*, the students would be able to meet the expenses of their education from the proceeds of the result of their productive work. *Secondly*, it would also gradually cover the expenses of the teachers as well. This aspect of self-support is not of a little importance in the country with meagre financial resources. But critics have linked this with the loss of revenue sustained as a result of prohibition of drinks. Gandhiji had observed that the problem of education was "unfortunately mixed up with the disappearance of drink-revenues". But it has been clearly indicated in the Zarik Hossain Committee's report that the scheme of Basic Education is a "matter of sound educational policy" and an "urgent measure of national reconstruction." The report further observed that "it is fortunate however that this good education will also incidentally cover the major portion of its running expenses". Thus, it is clear that the scheme emphasises more on its educational value than on its self-supporting aspect. Economically considered, the scheme will increase the productive capacity of the work and enable them to utilise their leisure profitably.

5. *Educative value*—It is important to note that the primary object of this project is not to train efficient craftsmen, but to utilise that craft-work for educative purposes. For this purpose, the crafts should be selected with due regard to their educative possibilities. They should have natural correlation with various branches of learning, particularly, with matters of human interest and activities. Another merit of this system is that it involves a better method of teaching. Principles of co-operative enterprise

planning, initiative and responsibility are more easily grasped due to the education being activity-centred. There has been much experiment on this at Champaran. It has been found that this method taught pupils common subjects better than they are taught in general schools. Students of the basic schools were found more active in co-operative activities than those taught in general schools.

6. *Ideal of citizenship*—Under this system there is a relationship of the work done in school to the work of the community. The pupils are taught to look upon all forms of manual work with dignity. The children are trained to carry this outlook into the wider world after their training. Thus, the pupils imbibe the idea of a good citizenship in a co-operative community.

7. *Self-reliance*—One important effect of the "self-supporting" nature of the scheme is that it tends to make the students self-reliant, by enabling them to earn their own expenses for education. Originally, Gandhiji's proposal envisaged to cover running expenses of the school by the sale proceeds of the products manufactured. But this point should be dealt with a great caution. The students should no doubt earn their own expenses. But care must be taken to see that they are not made tools for earning money. There is the danger of laying too much stress on the economic aspect at the sacrifice of the educational and cultural objectives. This danger must be avoided, and the teachers and the supervisory staff must be adequately cautioned on this issue.

Failings of the System: Now it can be said that the basic pattern is highly suitable for primary education in India. Before stating further grounds in support thereof, it is worthwhile to consider the shortcomings of the scheme, so often pointed out by the critics. They are:

(1) There is more of sentiment than education in this method, as it was proposed by the Father of the Nation.

(2) All essential subjects cannot be correlated with a basic craft. This is neither practical nor natural. There is a tendency to adopt spinning and weaving as the only craft.

(3) Vocational education at the early stage of a pupil is psychologically unsound.

(4) The scheme will tend to turn the school into a factory and make the students a tool for earning money. The educational objective will thus be frustrated.

(5) It will be difficult to secure well-trained teachers, with expert knowledge of the basic education.

(6) Village craft is incongruous with the present age of industrialisation.

It can be seen without much difficulty that most of the above apprehensions do not hold good. The idea of a self-supporting educational scheme is not of a little value in our country with limited financial resources. So the question of sentiment does not stand. It has already been stressed that the choice of craft must have a bearing on the important subjects of human interest. It is not necessary to cover all fields of knowledge at a particular stage of education. The system is rather psychologically sound. The eminent educationists of all times have commended the work-centred education particularly at the initial stage. It is more suitable in the primary stage, when the tender-minded pupils have a natural aversion to literal studies. The craft in the primary stage should be selected in such a way as to offer a 'playway' to the young pupils. The economic aspect of the scheme has been discussed at length. With due caution, there should not be any risk of paying more attention to the economic aspect at the sacrifice of educational objective. The question of unsuitability of village crafts in the age of industrialisation does not hold good, when we look to the vast rural areas, backward and undeveloped.

Conclusion : It may be concluded by saying that the basic pattern is particularly suitable for primary education in our country, chiefly on the following grounds :

(1) The long-felt urge for a universal primary education can hardly be satisfied under the strained economic position, the country has been passing through. When more financial inputs are necessary in the field of industrial development

and of higher education, there is no other way to extend the primary education through the basic scheme, where additional financial investment is minimum.

(2) The teeming millions of rural children can never be imparted education through the normal method of book study. The basic system will provide a playway, most readily acceptable by the young learners.

(3) Basic system in primary education will make the foundation of the pupils stronger by bringing an all-round development of their body and mind. It will sow in them the seed of self reliance, dignity of labour and co-operative endeavour, which are so important for a developing nation.

Q. 3. Basic Education is the last and precious gift to India by Gandhiji—Discuss.

Ans. The most outstanding movement in Indian Education during the recent years as was ensured by Gandhiji is the Basic Education. It is said to be the last and precious gift to India by the Mahatma. He realised that to free the people of his country from the foreign yoke, the people of India must be made conscious, and he felt the need of a proper system of education. His aim was to liberate the country and create a new social and economic order. He came in close contact with the poorer class and their gruelling poverty touched the very core of his heart. Besides the material poverty, worse was the poverty of philosophy. He sensed something wrong in the prevailing system of education and was sorry to learn that the youths of India were not even aware of the condition of their country. So he advocated a system of education that would be based on activity and experience. He felt the necessity of creating a type of society where all people would be placed on equal footing and everybody would all work to earn through his own hands. He radically promulgated that manual work of a craft to be the foundation of social structure of a good life. He initiated a social movement which aimed at eradication of untouchability, and an economic uplift of our villages and emancipation of women. "Education meant inspiring our children with a new ideology based upon personal purity and unselfish

service'—Gandhiji viewed. He advocated the creation of a society based upon truth and love.

Basic education showed a gradual development during the period from 1937 to 1947, till present time we can find the growing trend of the gift of Gandhiji to the Indian nation.

Basic education was initiated in 1937 and was first put into practice in 1938 in the six major Provinces of Bombay, U.P., C.P., Madras, Bihar and Orissa where the Congress rose to power.

They started a number of basic schools and arranged for the establishment of some training centres for basic teacher and administrative officers. Text books for Basic education were published. Kashmir remained silent in promoting Basic education. Many national institutions organised their courses in basic pattern. The Government of Central Province adopted a notable scheme on Basic education and proposed the establishment of 'Vidya Mandir' in every village for the education of 40 school-going children in each institution. They offered incentive to every school and a commendable progress followed. But with the resignation of the Congress ministers and sudden break out of Second World War the progress was thwarted.

In 1945, an educational conference was held at Wardah to review the situation with regard to basic education and the scope of basic education was extended. They recommended a scheme known as 'Naitalim'. It consisted in four stages : (1) pre-basic, (2) basic, (3) post-basic and (4) adult. Instruction in all these four stages was activity-centred.

India attained freedom and followed a path to build a democratic social order. It was necessary to provide a minimum education to all children to enable them to become responsible citizens, and a successful-working of democracy demanded it. So our national government strove earnestly to spread education throughout the country. It was also incorporated in the Constitution of India that the State should endeavour to provide free and compulsory elementary

education for all children upto the age of 14 within ten years of the commencement of the Constitution.

The Government of India, as a first step in this direction, is conducting, in collaboration with the State Governments, an All India Survey of Primary Schools to study the location of existing primary schools and to form the basis for proper location for new schools. Steps are also being taken to improve the quality of instruction. The Zakir Hossain Committee known as Basic National Education Committee, clearly defined the concept and the system of basic education.

In 1959, there was a remarkable increase in the number of Junior Basic Schools including Basic Primary Schools. In order to train the teacher for basic schools, there operated 520 Basic Training Schools in the country.

The scheme for the establishment of post-basic institutions was formulated by the Government of India and had been implemented during the Second Five-Year Plan. The Government of India appointed an Assessment Committee in 1955 under the Chairmanship of Sri G. Ramchandra to assess the programme and development of basic education in different parts of the country, and surveyed the existing situation in various States. It made valuable recommendations to bring effective improvement in basic education and the recommendations are being implemented by the Education Department so far as they are acceptable to them.

The Government of India established a National Institute of Basic Education which carries out research in Basic Education. The Institute plans to import an advanced training in Basic Education to personnel in various ranks. Efforts are being made constantly to bring about an improvement in the method and techniques of teaching and the Government of India provides suitable assistance to the State Governments for the attainment of basic objects, i.e., provision of free and compulsory education for all children upto the age of 14, improvement in the quality of elementary education and the conversion of all elementary schools into Basic schools.

Basic education would be of great help to the uneducated

masses. The basic curriculum should be enriched by introducing crafts and other forms of creative activity. Basic education is a must and we certainly owe Gandhiji a perennial bow for his last and precious gift to the nation.

Q. 4. Discuss the main principles of basic education.

Ans. The main features of the scheme of basic education explained by Gandhiji are as follows :

(a) Free universal and compulsory education should be provided for all boys and girls between the ages of 7 and 14.

(b) The medium of instructions should centre round some basic craft with due regard to the capacity of the children and the need of the locality.

(c) The craft chosen should be rich in educational possibilities and it should find natural points of correlation with other subjects taught.

(d) The system of education should gradually cover the remuneration of the teachers. Such education can and must be self-supporting. In fact, self-support is the acid test of its reality.

Q. 5. Why was the education introduced by Gandhiji called the basic education a 'Nai Talim'? How far it could claim to be the National system of education?

Ans. The system of education expounded by Gandhiji is called basic as it will provide the basis of our national culture—as it will be closely linked with the basic needs and interests of child life. Moreover, it is correlated with basic occupations of community life. In 1945, an Educational Conference was held at Wardha to review the situation with regard to basic education and the scope of basic education was extended. They recommended a scheme known as 'Nai Talim'. It consisted of four stages—(1) pre-basic, (2) basic, (3) post-basic and (4) adult. The term basic has three interpretations. *First*, it provides the basis of our national culture. *Secondly*, it is inseparably linked with the basic needs and interests of the child. *Thirdly*, it is correlated with the basic occupations of the community life. The

scheme is dynamic in nature. It will change with the change of circumstances. It not only provides a training ground for certain services and professions but also acts as an agency for the practical and social education of millions of the rural population of an underdeveloped country like India. Thus, it could claim to be a national system of education.

Q. 6. What do you know about the Zakir Hussain Committee? Discuss the important features of their report on Basic Education.

Ans. The Conference at Wardha appointed a Committee under the Presidentship of Dr. Zakir Hussain. This Committee was popularly known as Zakir Hussain Committee. The Committee submitted its report in 1937. The Committee in course of its report, laid special emphasis in the inclusion of chosen crafts as core of the curriculum and also made valuable suggestions regarding supervision and administration, training of teachers etc.

The Committee considered that education through some suitable forms of productive work is the most effective way to provide an integral all-sided education. The Committee viewed the mother tongue as the foundation of all education. Mathematics and social studies were considered important subjects. The report recommended an efficient system of supervision. The training of teacher in the special ideology of this new scheme is considered very important aspect of the basic education.

Q. 7. Basic education in India is admitted to be a failure. What are the reasons for its failure?

Ans. Basic education is admitted to be a failure mainly because of the following reasons :

(1) There is more of sentiment than education in this method as it was proposed by Gandhiji.

(2) All essential subjects cannot be correlated with a basic craft. This is neither practical nor natural. There is a tendency to adopt spinning and weaving as the only craft.

(3) Vocational education at the early stage of a pupil is psychologically unsound.

(4) The scheme would tend to turn the school into a factory and make the students tools for earning money.

(5) It will be difficult to secure well-trained teachers with expert knowledge of the basic education.

(6) Village craft is incongruous with the present age of industrialisation.

Q. 8. Give answer to the following :

(a) What are the main principles of Gandhiji's basic education ?

(b) What are the stages of basic education ?

(c) What is suggested in basic education regarding the training for self sufficiency ?

(d) What should be the medium of instruction according to basic education ?

(e) For which particular age-group basic education was organised ?

Ans. (a) The main principles of basic educations are as follows :

(i) Primary education should be extended to seven years.

(ii) The course should include general knowledge and a useful vocation.

(ii) The vocation shall serve two-fold purposes to develop the pupil's entire personality and to enable him to pay for the expense of his education by his own labour.

(b) The stages of basic education consisted of :

(i) Pre-basic, (ii) basic, (iii) post basic and (iv) adult.

Instruction in all these stages was activity centred.

(c) One important effect of the self-supporting nature of the scheme was that it tended to make the students self-reliant, by enabling them to earn their own expenses for education. All the students were supposed to learn a craft.

(d) Mother tongue should be the medium of instruction according to basic education.

(e) There was a provision of free and compulsory education for all children up to the age of 14.

Junior Basic—Age group 6—11 years.

Senior Basic—Age group 11—14 years.

CHAPTER 7

ASSAM ELEMENTARY EDUCATION ACT, 1962

Q. 1. Trace the growth of Primary Education in Assam.

Ans. Assam came under the East India Company in 1826. At that time three types of indigenous educational institutions were prevailing viz., 'Tols' and 'Pathshalas' for the Hindus, 'Satras' for the Vaishnavs and 'Mukhtabs' for the Muslims. The 'Satras' had a great influence in the cultural and religious life of the Assamese people and have not lost their influence even now. The first drive towards the expansion of the elementary education was given by David Scott. He was the Agent of the East India Company and came to Assam in 1826. He tried to improve the indigenous schools soon after his arrival and also wanted to increase the number of such schools and received sanction of the Government to establish a number of schools both in Upper Assam and in Lower Assam. He started eleven schools in Lower Assam and one in Garo Hills.

Elementary education made a considerable progress in Assam till the end of the nineteenth century. The Wood's Despatch of 1854 recommended the payment of grants-in-aid at the rate of Re. 1. for every ten boys attending school. As a result, there was a steady rise in the number of primary schools. There were 750 schools in Sibsagar and 600 in Kamrup at that time. Simultaneously, with the activities

of the East India Company, the missionaries continued to start primary schools. It is important to note that the schools started under the East India Company used Bengali as the medium of instruction, while the schools started by the missionaries used Assamese. The reason of this may be attributed to the predominance of Bengalee officers and the staff under the Company. It is relevant to mention that in 1873 the Assamese language was first introduced in the schools and in the courts.

The Hunter Commission recommended the transfer of primary schools to the local authorities and introduced the system of 'Payment by result' in giving grants to schools. The introduction of payment by results had rather an adverse effect on the progress of primary education in Assam. The standard of primary education being very low, the primary schools could not get the benefit of the scheme. But subsequently the educational policy of Lord Curzon and the policy enunciated by the Government of India Resolution of 1913 gave an impetus to the growth of primary education. The number of primary schools increased considerably.

Under the Government of India Act 1919, the educational administration was given in the charge of Indian ministers. The Government of Assam then first wanted to make primary education free and compulsory. Accordingly the Assam Primary Education Act was passed in 1926 with the object of introducing free and compulsory primary education to all children between the age group 6 and 11. The Act was not enforced on financial ground. The administration and control of primary schools continued to rest partly with the Government and partly with the local bodies.

With the independence of India in 1947 the urge for the introduction of free and compulsory primary education was revitalised and a revised scheme for primary education was formulated by passing another Act, known as Assam Primary Education Act, in 1948. The Act was enforced in selected areas only.

In the mean time, following the policy of the Government of India to lay emphasis on the Basic pattern of primary education, the Assam Government passed the Assam Basic Education Act in 1954. Basic education was accepted as the future pattern of primary education of the State and the Government decided to convert all the primary schools into basic pattern. As a result, a number of primary and middle schools were converted into Junior and Senior Basic Schools. But unfortunately, the scheme did not receive the expected impetus. As in the case of other States, there was much confusion about the intrinsic principles and features of basic education. Want of skilled and efficient teachers was also another problem. 27 Basic Training Centres were established in the State to train the Primary School teachers in Basic system of education. But the scheme of Basic education, however, was not very successful in Assam, as in the other parts of the country. The Assam Education Act of 1954 failed to make primary education free and compulsory.

The Government of Assam thought of the situation and passed another Act, known as the Elementary Education Act of Assam in 1962, with the object of introducing free and compulsory primary education in Assam. In this Act the Gaon Panchayets were made responsible for the control and management of the primary education in the State. In this Act the Government was empowered to constitute a Board of Elementary Education to advise the Government in the management, control, development and extension of elementary education in Assam. All primary institutions, basic or non-basic, were covered under this Act. In addition to the existing 13,000 Primary schools it was proposed to set up 4000 new schools by 1966 and to provide free primary education to 83% of the children in the age group 6-11. The targets have not been fully reached. But the progress has been fairly satisfactory. In 1947-48, the number of primary schools in Assam was 7,374 and it increased to 19,429 in 1966-67.

With the introduction of the Assam Elementary Education Act of 1962, elementary education in Primary

Schools, Junior Basic and Senior Basic Schools, has been made free in Assam.

Q. 2. State how far the introduction of Wardha Scheme of Basic Education has contributed to the progress of school education in Assam.

Ans. The scheme of basic education was put into practice in 1938, but it did not receive much official encouragement and patronage. The Congress Ministry resigned in 1940 and the Wardha Scheme did not receive importance till 1947. With the independence of India the Government adopted the Basic education as the national pattern of education. In Assam, Primary Education Act was passed in 1948 and was enforced in selected areas only. The policy was switching over the primary education to the basic did not gain ground until 1954. Following the policy of the Government of India to lay emphasis on the basic education. The Government of Assam passed the Assam Basic Education Act in 1954. It was accepted that the basic education would be the future pattern of elementary education in the State.

The chief provisions of Assam Basic Education Act are briefly stated in order to show the desired objectives and methods adopted by the Government.

1. A State Board of Basic Education shall be constituted. The function of the Board will be to advise the Government in all matters of Basic education, e. g., control of the School Boards, allocation of grants, recruitment, service conditions and training of basic school teachers, preparation and selection of the text books, medical inspection of children, curriculum etc.

2. The State Advisory Board will also maintain a fund for the improvement of basic education and the fund will be in the charge of the Director of Public Institutions.

3. For detailed working, management and control of the schools, there will be a Regional Board for Basic Education for each sub-division of the Districts.

4. The duties and functions of the Regional Boards will be as under :

(a) Control, expansion, re-distribution, recognition, and amalgamation of Basic Schools.

(b) Conversion of old schools into Basic Schools and creation of new Basic School.

(c) Provision of accommodation and equipments for Basic Schools.

(d) Appointments and control of basic school-teachers including punishment when necessary.

(e) Arrangement of medical inspection of the children.

(f) Arrangement of marketing and disposal of the products of school crafts.

5. The State Government will have the power to revoke a School Board in case of its failure to discharge its duties satisfactorily, and to reconstitute it.

6. The School Board will maintain a fund which will be operated by the Secretary of the Board, i. e., the District Inspector of Schools.

7. The following schools will come under the purview of the Act :

(i) All primary school recognised under the Assam Primary Education Act, 1948.

(ii) All Government Middle Vernacular Schools.

(iii) All Private Middle Vernacular Schools managed by local authorities.

(iv) All Basic Schools under the Basic Education Department.

(v) Any private school, the School Board decides to give recognition to.

8. The Basic School will not charge any fee, upto a certain limit prescribed by the State Government.

9. The State Government is empowered to declare, by a

notification in the Assam Gazette, the introduction of Basic Education on a compulsory basis in any area where a School Board has been constituted. In such areas it will be obligatory to the guardians to send their children to the recognised basic school on penalty of a fine of Rs. 25/- for the first offence and Rs. 100/- for each subsequent offence.

10. The State Government is empowered to frame rules on the curriculum, standard and duration of education; age of children etc. and to levy an educational tax for the purpose of the Act.

The provisions of the Act adequately signify the sincere desire of State Government to popularise the system of Basic Education and spread its growth in the State. Immediate measures were taken by the State to convert all the Lower Primary and Middle Vernacular Schools to Junior and Senior Basic Schools in a phased manner. The training centres for the primary school teachers were gradually converted into Junior Basic Training Centres. Training centres were also opened for training of Senior Basic teachers. The progress continued till 1959-60 as will be evident from the fact that the number of schools converted into basic pattern upto March 1960 was 2383 as against 612 till 1955-56.

But unfortunately, as in other provinces, the progress of Basic Education in Assam was not satisfactory and its introduction failed to produce the desired impact on the educational system. The reasons are mainly as follows:

(i) There was a confusion regarding the concept of Basic Education. The principles of basic education were not accepted by the eminent authorities in the field of education and in public life.

(ii) The administrative set up for the purpose was inadequate.

(iii) There was in well-laid out programme of change-over to Basic Education.

(iv) There was no proper arrangement for the training of teachers in the method of basic education.

(v) Adequate scientific investigations were not carried out to weigh the problems of basic education.

(vi) Suitable literature on the subject was wanting.

As a result, the Basic Education Act of 1954 was soon repealed and a new Act, known as the Assam Elementary Education Act was passed in 1962.

CHAPTER 8

COMPULSORY PRIMARY EDUCATION IN INDIA

Q. 1. "The most important event of the history of education under Diarchy is the rapid development of mass education"—Analyse the statement.

Ans. Under the Government of India Act, 1919, the charge of several departments of the provincial governments, was transferred to the Indian Ministers. These were called transferred departments. The Governor, as the head of administration, administered these departments with the help of the Ministers. The Ministers were responsible to the provincial legislature formed by a majority of elected members. The Governor on the other hand, administered other departments directly with the help of his executive councillors and was responsible to Secretary for State of Indian Affairs and not to the Legislature. These were the Reserved Departments. This system of divided administration was termed 'Diarchy'. Under this system, Education, as one of the Transferred Departments, came under the control of Indian Ministers in 1921. This arrangement continued till 1937. Before going to assess the educational development during this period, it is pertinent to mention about certain difficulties under which the Ministers had to work. These were as follows :

1. Financial Position : Allocation of the more important sources of revenue to the Centre, and the State contribu-

tion of revenue payable to the centre, made it difficult for the Ministers to find funds for any major expansion of education.

2. *Control over Officers* : In 1921, the important posts in the Education Department were held by officers of Indian Educational Service over which the Ministers had no control. Although recruitment to the Indian Education Service was discontinued in 1924 following the recommendation of the Royal Commission, the rights and privileges of the Indian Education Service Officers were continued to be maintained.

3. *Control of Assistance* : The financial arrangement under the new system stopped the financial assistance from the Centre, which had been liberally granting financial assistance so long.

4. *Political Movement* : During the period there was a great political movement throughout the country. This resulted in division of public attention more to political issues than to educational problems.

5. *Economic Depression* : After 1930, there was a general economic depression in the country.

It is redeeming to note that even on the face of the retarding factors enumerated above, the progress of education was surprisingly good. There was a remarkable advance in all the branches of education particularly in the field of Primary Education of the mass.

Development of Primary Education : The controversy between qualitative improvement and quantitative expansion had long been hanging as an apple to discord between official and non-official circles. The policy of qualitative improvement, specially in the field of Primary Education received constant public resentment. There was a growing public opinion in favour of mass education and removal of illiteracy. It was therefore, natural that the Ministers would utilise their powers to effect a maximum expansion of Primary Education in the country. Their earnest attempts together with a wide public support resulted in the passing of Compulsory Primary Education Acts in most of the provinces. Some of these Acts

were, however, introduced before Diarchy, but they actually came into force during this period. These Acts, no doubt, formed effective instruments in the drive against illiteracy.

Primary Education Acts : The important general features of these Acts are discussed hereinafter, although these Acts varied in different provinces in minor details.

(i) Under these Acts, the local self-governing bodies like Municipalities and Union Boards were given immense powers of undertaking, management and control of Primary Education in their respective areas. They were authorised by the Acts to prepare schemes for expansion of primary education according to the needs of their respective areas.

(ii) These local bodies were also empowered to introduce Compulsory Education accordingly as their circumstances permitted. In Bombay, however, this power was reserved with the Government.

(iii) They were authorised to levy education cess on a compulsory or voluntary basis.

(iv) There was also provision for government contribution to help the local bodies financially.

(v) There was also provision compelling the parents to send their children of primary age-group to schools on point of prosecution. Except in Madras, the children of the area, where compulsion was introduced, were prohibited employment. There were also provisions for exemption in particular cases.

(vi) The age in Compulsory Primary Education varied in different provinces from six to ten years, six to eleven years and seven to eleven years.

The promulgation of these Acts may be considered as a very bold step in the history of development of Primary Education in India. The vesting of powers regarding Primary Education in the local self-governing bodies was initiated by Lord Ripon in 1882 on the recommendation of the Indian Education Commission. But the result was not satisfactory due to lack of funds of the local bodies, and meagre government contribution. But the Primary Educa-

tion Acts gave overall powers to the local self-governing bodies, like levy of cess, formulation of schemes, compulsion etc.

Expansion of Primary Education: As an immediate effect of these Act, there was a rapid expansion of Primary Education during the five years from 1921 to 1925. The following statistics will bear this out :

	1921	1927
1. No. of Primary schools	1,55,017	1,84,829
2. No. of pupils	61,09,752	80,17,923
3. Expenditure on Primary Education in lacs	Rs. 4.94	Rs. 6.75

Compulsory Primary Education also showed fair progress in Madras, U. P. and Punjab. This fairly good advance of mass education in a short period may, therefore, be aptly regarded as the most important event in the history of education under Diarchy. The reasons for this expansion are not far to seek. *First*, financial position was improved by levying taxes and by liberal government contributions. *Secondly*, the post-war crisis was no longer there. *Thirdly*, there was a growing public interest towards mass education, as a result of which new schools were established outside the Acts as well and were recognised.

Unfortunately, the next decade, i.e., 1927-1937 under the Diarchy, showed a retardation in the regular expansion of Primary Education. This was due to two reasons. The first was the world economic depression, which led to a reduction in expenditure. Consequently new schemes for expansion were left out. The second and more weighty factor leading to the retardation was the report of the Hartog Committee. Without going into the details of the Report it is sufficient to say that the Committee condemned a policy of hasty expansions and recommended 'consolidation and improvement' of Primary Education. It thus reaffirmed the Resolution of 1913 with regard to the quality of Primary Education.

So long the Government accepted the policy of expansion

in view of strong public opposition against consolidation. But the Hartog Committee's Report held a triumph to the official viewpoint. The old controversy appeared again. But this time the Hartog Committee's Report together with the economic depression went in favour of the officials. It was, therefore, difficult for the Ministers to make a much headways in further expansion of Primary Education.

On the other hand, the official attempts towards qualitative improvement yielded not very bright result. The percentage of trained teachers rose from 44 in 1927 to 1957 in 1937. There were some changes in curriculum also. But the overall improvement in quality was far too inadequate to compensate for the loss in quantity. There was, however, another factor to be considered. The growing discontent of the public and consequent growth of political movement diverted public attention considerably from the field of education. So, the official attempts continued to be carried on till 1937. Considering all the limiting factors, we may conclude that the achievements of the Indian Ministers towards the cause of expansion of mass education during the period of Diarchy, deserve commendation.

Q. 2. What factors have hindered the attainment of the goal of Universal Primary Education ?

Ans. In order to make a correct assessment of the factors leading to the problem of Universal Primary Education in India, the history of education as far back as 1835 should be traced. Prior to this period, education was left in the hands of the Christian Missionaries and the East India Company. The former undertook a programme of mass education in selected areas only as a corollary to their religious campaign. The latter meant to create a group of literate people to serve as assistants. None of the organisations bothered about mass literacy or universal education.

It was in 1835 that Lord William Bentinck attempted to get a first hand information on the state of elementary education. For this purpose he directed William Adam to make a survey of the state of elementary education. Adam in his report advocated improvement of the indigenous

system of education. But not much was said by him about the necessity of a wider expansion of Primary Education. Even his proposal for improvement of elementary education was turned down by Lord Macaulay as being expensive and premature.

Wood's Despatch of 1854 was a unique document in the history of education in India. It brought about a revolutionary change in the educational system of India. But unfortunately it did not mention anything on the ideal of universal education. The little emphasis it gave on the general education of the common people was also not followed in practice. The Government spent more on higher education.

Wood's Despatch had recommended for the development of indigenous elementary schools. But in 1859, Stanley's Despatch observed that Government should rely mainly on Government schools for the mass education.

The subsequent period upto 1882 was spent in a controversy between two views viz., for private effort and direct instrumentality of government. The conflict centred round three points viz., agency, levy of taxes and claim of primary education in the share of Government Revenues. Due to this conflicts much headway could not be made in the field of primary education. The question of a Universal Primary Education was far beyond consideration. Although certain qualitative improvements were attained during this period, the progress of primary education was rather slow.

At the recommendation of the Indian Education Commission, the responsibility of primary education was entrusted with the local bodies. But progress in primary education was slow till 1901. The chief obstacle was in adequacy of finance. Again the Herculean task of education of vast mass of illiterate people was too much burden in the newly formed immature local bodies. There was also lack of interest on Primary Education.

Lord Curzon's policy gave more emphasis on higher
Edu—9

education. Regarding Primary Education his views mainly stressed on qualitative improvement.

It was not until 1910 that a claim for universal and compulsory primary education was raised by the eminent educationist, Gokhale, in his bill in the Legislature. But as ill luck would have it the proposal was lost by majority of votes. But a strong public criticism followed. As a result, the Government resolution of 1913 declared the new educational policy of Government. Regarding Primary Education it provided larger sums of money. But it did not accept the idea of compulsory Primary Education.

The first attempt to introduce Compulsory Primary Education was made by the Indian Ministers by enacting Primary Education Acts in many provinces between 1917 and 1927. These Acts gave the local bodies overall powers, like levy of cess, formulation of schemes, compulsion etc. As an immediate of these Acts, there was a rapid growth of primary education during the period from 1921 to 1925. But unfortunately the next decade viz., 1925 to 1935 showed a retardation in the regular expansion of primary education. This was due to two chief factors. The first was the world economic depression. This led to a reduction in expenditure. The second, and the more weighty factor was the Report of the Hartog Committee. It condemned the policy of 'hasty expansion' and recommended 'consolidation and improvement' of primary education. The Committee also made observation on the slow progress in the field of primary education and analysed several reasons for this which are as follows :

The period, after 1935 till the year of independence in 1947 is characterised by a nationalistic outlook on education. Development of basic education was adopted as a means of expanding Primary Education during this period. The scheme was given a trial for about ten years and was ultimately accepted by the Government of India after independence. The special feature of the scheme is that it is a dynamic process and is subject to continuous changes

according to circumstances and needs and in the light of social changes.

Now that the different stages in the growth of Primary Education have been traced, the causes of various problems, slow progress, wastage and stagnation in the Primary Education are discussed as follows :

The foremost factor which led to the unsatisfactory progress was the persistent attention of the British officials towards qualitative improvement rather than quantitative expansion. This view was emphasised although in the various reports and recommendations of the various administrations and committee and commissions. The officials, however, held their own views in the causes of slow progress and stagnation of Primary Education. These are :

Official Views : (1) *Population*—The officials held that the large increase in population and acceleration birth-rate surpassed the expansion in Primary Education. In other words, the number of pupils to be educated increased every year.

(2) *Death rate*—High death-rate created wide gaps in the literates turned out by the schools.

(3) *Premature withdrawal of children from schools* led to stagnation and wastage. Only a fraction of the students entering the primary schools, turned out literates.

(4) Certain intrinsic difficulties also stood in the way to the spread of mass literacy. These were—highly scattered villages, difficulties in communication, multiplicity of castes and languages, poverty and disease, apathy of the people towards education etc.

(5) Pupils once passing the primary schools usually lapsed into illiteracy due to absolute detachment from the educational environment.

Public Views : Although the above reasons cannot altogether be ruled out, they cannot be regarded as the sole reasons for non-attainment of the desired goal in Compulsory Primary Education. The general public opinion differed from the

official views. According to it, the reasons of wastage and stagnation as follows :

(i) Persistent attention of the officials towards qualitative improvement rather than a quantitative expansion.

(ii) Neglect and ultimate disappearance of the indigenous schools. The new set of primary schools did not even compensate for the loss.

(iii) Never there was an adequacy of funds to meet the need of the teeming millions.

(iv) Emphasis was all along given to costlier departmental institutions. Private institutions which were less costlier, and which could achieve expansion at a lesser cost, were neglected.

(v) English was adopted as the medium of instruction. This was a factor which repelled the pupils to continue their study after primary education.

(vi) Above all, absence of Compulsory Primary Education was a leading factor which hindered the spread of mass education.

From the retrospect given earlier, we may conclude that the slow progress and stagnation in Compulsory Primary Education was due to failure of the British Government to develop a national system of education. Even after independence the problem has attained a great magnitude in comparison with the financial resources of the country.

Q. 3. Should Primary Education be made responsibility of Centre, State or Local Self Government ? Discuss.

Ans. The Constitution of India provides free and Compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years. Article 45 of the Constitution of India reads : The State shall endeavour to provide, within a period of 10 years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years." Article 20 on the universal declaration of the human rights also declares that every citizen of India has the right of having free

and compulsory education at the primary stage. The need and importance of a primary education in a democratic country cannot be overemphasised. Such a State must make her citizen acquire the minimum qualities of a good citizen. Illiteracy is an anathema to the nation. Uneducated people make the foundation of the nation weak. Their uncontrolled energy is a source of danger to the country. In order to convert their energy towards a fruitful end, it is necessary, to give them the minimum education. Here lies the importance of primary education.

The attempt made towards giving primary education to the Indians during the British period was half-hearted. The need of a compulsory primary education was never given due consideration. The idea was to give education to 'some children of all places' or to 'all children of some places.' It is needless to mention that this is a most unsatisfactory arrangement. The view cannot be accepted in a modern democratic country where equality of opportunity is a fundamental right. There is no reason why some children will be denied of the privilege given to others. A democratic country cannot think of such an injustice based on inequality. So this idea of the British period was totally disregarded and the pledge of universal primary education was taken by the free India. But the problem faced by the country after independence was enormous. Even after the lapse of more than twenty years the pledge for a universal free primary education could not be fulfilled. Although much progress has been made in the successive Five-Year Plans in the enrolment of pupils at the primary stage, the primary education is still being given on a voluntary basis. The chief reason of this slow progress may be analysed as under.

I. Wastage and Stagnation : The most common problem of primary education in India is wastage. Statistics shows that nearly 57% of the pupils admitted to Class I in 1952-53 discontinued study before they reached Class IV. Another factor is that nearly 50% of the pupils fail to get promoted to the next higher class. These children are retained in a

class for more than one year. This factor is known as stagnation. A third important factor leading to wastage is children's lapse into illiteracy. It has been experienced that a large proportion of students having received primary education soon forget everything due to discontinuance and thus lapse into illiteracy. All these factors may be considered as tremendous wastage of money and energy, and have presented the most crucial problem in the matter of spreading primary education.

2. Problem of qualified teachers : The average position with regard to the primary school teachers in the country is extremely unsatisfactory. Their social status is poor, and the emoluments they receive are still poorer. As a result, they take up the work more as a source of living than as a true vocation. They have neither the training nor the aptitude or intention to treat the tender minds of the primary school students. Properly trained teachers are not attracted by the poor pay. The position cannot be improved unless the social and financial status of the primary school-teachers are improved.

3. Communication : The rural areas of India, which are inhabited by about 80% of India's population are still deprived of good communication. The number of school is also inadequate and their distribution improper. This is one of the important factors hindering the progress of primary education. In rains the communication is most difficult. As a result, the parents do not want to send their children to distant schools. This difficulty can only be removed by a thorough improvement of rural road system and increase in the number of primary schools.

4. Socio-economic factors : The general economic condition of an average rural family is far from being satisfactory. Moreover, social prejudice prevents the parents from sending their daughters to school. Thus economic distress and social prejudice are main factors which hinder the spread of primary education.

5. Curriculum : The curriculum for the primary school students is too much heavy, unrealistic and dissociated from

life. It is hardly attractive to village boys and girls. There is predominance of book-learning. The introduction of basic system should remove this defect to a great extent. But the formulation of a well thought-out programme of Basic Education has not yet been possible.

6. School environment : The environment of the school and the condition of the school buildings are extremely unhygienic and dismal. There is scarcity of accommodation and absence of proper equipment and sitting arrangements. On the whole the environment is detestable to the children and uncongenial to proper education.

From an analysis of the problem, it will appear that the financial problem is one of the most important factors which has rendered a compulsory and free primary education extremely difficult. Many of the other problems can be resolved by bringing about suitable reforms. But the financial problem is not very easy to solve.

The primary education since the British period, has not been given due importance it deserves. All through, the bonus of such a vital and Herculean task was left to the local bodies like Municipalities in urban areas and Local Boards in the rural areas. The Primary Education Acts of U.P., Bengal and many other provinces, laid more emphasis on the municipal areas. In Assam, however, the entire province was brought under the jurisdiction of the Act. But the initial responsibility has always been laid upon the local bodies.

Even after independence the position seems to have improved very little. Of course, Government has been giving more attention towards the primary education. But again, the problem has also assumed a multiplied magnitude after independence due to a continuous rise in population. The population of 30 crores in 1946-47 rose to 44 crores in 1960-61. This is one of the major factors which tend to nullify all efforts towards the growth and spread of primary education. Still the country had taken a target of setting up a primary school within easy walk from the home of every child by the end of Third Five-Year Plan. This target is

however still to reach ; and the factor responsible is mainly financial. In the development plans, education has received only 7% of the total outlay and out of that a major portion is spent for higher education. It is not that the importance of education is not realised but the competing demands for other development programmes could not wait.

The principal developments in the field of primary education in the post-independence period are summarised below :

(a) *Decentralisation* : In order to stimulate local community interest, most of the States have decided to entrust the administration of primary education to the local bodies constituted at the district level or preferably at the Block level. A Block roughly consists of 100 villages with a population of 60,000. It is, therefore, more convenient to adopt a compact programme of Compulsory Primary Education on a Block basis.

(b) *Community interest* : In the recent years there has been community awakening. The local people are coming forward to provide school buildings, playgrounds, land etc. increasingly.

(c) *Remuneration of school teachers* : The average salary of a primary school teacher has been increased to some extent. The training facilities of teachers has also been considerably expanded. The total accommodation in the training schools of the country was 39,90,000 in 1945-47. It has now increased to more than 1,60,000.

(d) *Curriculum* : In most of the States curriculum has been revised in recent years. An integrated syllabus for Primary and Basic schools has been prepared with a view to making it more practical and attractive.

(e) *Text-Books* : Standard text-books have also been prepared by the State Governments and offered to the students at the cheapest possible rates. Provision is also made for free supply of text-books to poor students.

(f) *Legislation* : The existing Primary Education Acts are being revised and the enforcement of compulsory

Primary education is being streamlined and made more effective.

(g) *Education for girls*: Special steps are being taken to enroll more girls and to increase the number of women teachers. The prejudice against girls' education has by this time been largely broken.

It can be concluded that in whatever form the actual administration of primary education is conducted, it should be the ultimate responsibility of the State Government to administer free and compulsory Primary Education in the States. The actual administration of conducting the schools may be entrusted with a specially constituted Board at the Block level. But the State Government should take all measures necessary for a smooth and successful conducting of the schools. The following line of action is suggested.

(1) The State should make proper allocation of funds on District basis considering the needs and problems of the individual district.

(2) At the District level there should be a specially constituted Board which will look into the affairs of primary education. They will be responsible for allocating funds to the Block level and proper examination of new proposals received from the Block level.

(3) The State should make arrangement for teacher's training, provide the financial help to meet their salaries and purchase of equipment and furniture.

(4) Selection of land, preparing curriculum, publishing suitable text-books should be the responsibility of the State Government. The Education Department should have a Primary Education cell to look to the various problems of primary education.

(5) There should be adequate qualified inspecting staff, and regular and systematic inspection should be ensured. The attitude of the inspecting staff should not be one of a fault-finding nature but should be helpful to the School Committee and the block Administration.

(6) Proper enactment for Compulsory Primary Education and levy of taxes should be made by the State Government.

In fine, it may be stated that although education has been made a State subject, the Centre cannot absolve itself from the entire responsibility of primary education. It should come forward to assist the State by granting larger funds for primary education. It should make special contribution for primary education in the specially backward and under-developed areas of the various States. The offers made by the Centre should be based on practical schemes suitable for the State. It has been a sad experience that the contribution of the Centre has often been returned unspent by the States due to their failure to meet the terms and condition of the Grant. The Centre should realise that 'diversity' is a characteristic feature of the country. Any offer made to a particular State should, therefore, have a bearing on the local circumstances. A centrally designed uniform scheme for grant-in-aid may not serve the purpose in all States.

Q. 4. Indicate the importance of Primary Education. In what respect it differs from Secondary Education? Should primary education be free, universal and compulsory?

Ans. Illiteracy acts as a strong retarding force in civilisation. Not only illiterate citizen are stumbling blocks in the progress of a nation, but also they render the foundation of the nation weak. Among the fundamental needs of mankind, education is the foremost. Only education can enable a man to live well. Every Welfare State should aim at providing ample scope to everyone for his maximum development. The role of primary education in attaining this end cannot be denied. Education greatly influences a child at the primary stage of development when his interests and faculties look forward to bloom. The mind of a child is highly receptive and formative. The environment can play a decisive role in shaping the future development of a child.

The primary education has a profound effect on the higher education of a child. And it is the basis of making the future citizens of a country.

The essential points of difference between the Primary education and the Secondary education are discussed below :

(i) The different in age is the most important. The Primary education is given during the age from 6 to 11 years, while the Secondary education starts at the age of 11 years in our country. Secondary education corresponds to the period of adolescence, while the primary education relates to childhood.

(ii) The Primary education is more universal than the Secondary education. All normal children are given primary education. But the Secondary education is confined to more intelligent boys.

(iii) The responsibility and problems in Secondary education are more important than those in primary education. The requirements of the children at the primary stage are of a general nature, while boys in adolescence have intensive and diversive nature of their needs. So, the secondary education requires a more careful planning for satisfaction of individual needs than that of the primary education.

(iv) There is a wide difference in curriculum. The course of studies in primary education is integrated and more generalised while in secondary education it is diversified, specialised and vocational according to the needs of the students. The teaching process in these two fields differs to a great extent.

(v) There is also difference in aims of the two systems. The primary education aims at general education for preparing the child to attain a minimum standard of education necessary for a progressive State. The secondary education is more or less a self-complete education. It enables the students to enter into the wider world.

Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights admits the right of every citizen to have free and compulsory primary education. There should be a minimum standard of education in a nation. The base of the nation cannot be strong without proper educational system. So, all citizens

of a nation must have the three R's as well as a general idea of this society in the form of history and geography.

The new Constitution of India has pledged for free and compulsory primary education. The question of primary education is associated with the idea of compulsion. Primary education will be of little avail, if the vast majority of the population remain illiterate. So it should be made free, universal and compulsory.

Q. 5. Discuss the recent developments in elementary education.

Ans. Before 1976, education was exclusively a responsibility of the State, the Central Government being concerned with the certain areas like co-ordination, determination of standards in technical and higher education etc. In 1976, by a constitutional amendment, education became the joint responsibility of the Central and the State Governments.

During the Seventh Five Year Plan, the thrust of educational activities had been laid towards promotion of quality and excellence, gearing the educational system to meet the challenge of emerging areas of science and technology, providing wider opportunities for vocational education at different levels, and restructuring the education system to encompass the development of the country's human resources potential. The new design for education, while geared to meet the challenge of the 21st century, will also seek to provide a strong base of a national system of education, rooted in scientific humanism, secularism, pride for the rich cultural values, so as to promote development of the potential of the individual and his increased usefulness to national development and social transformation.

Determined efforts has been made in the Seventh Five Plan to achieve the goals of universal elementary education and eradication of illiteracy in the age group of fifteen to thirty-five by 1990. Detailed block and school level planning with community participation and effective linkage with the local environment and development activities is envisaged, as a major strategy to overcome the several obstacles associated

with achieving the goal of universal elementary education and eradication of illiteracy. An important focus of the Seventh Plan was to raise the quality and relevance of education. In particular efforts would be made to raise the standards of science and mathematics teaching at all levels. Non-formal education and open learning systems would be encouraged at all levels. Education of scheduled castes and tribes and those in hill areas would be specially promoted. Women education, which is an area of special importance, will be similarly promoted, provision of educational facilities would be co-ordinated with manpower planning. Vocational education would be specially promoted so that education increasingly provides the skilled personnel needed by the economy and imparts a new dynamism in its growth by raising productivity. Necessary reforms would be initiated to make vocational education more attractive and prestigious. Degrees would not be insisted upon as an essential qualification or pre-condition for jobs, where it has no specific relevance.

Besides policy formulation, Ministry of Education shares with the state government's responsibility for educational planning. Up to the Sixth Plan education was taken to be a social service rather than an input in the development process. There has been a change in the emphasis beginning with the Sixth Plan wherein it has been considered to be pivotal in the social and economic development of the country through development of human resources. Priority has been given to the programmes on universalisation of elementary education of illiteracy in the age group of 15-35. Both these programmes are covered under 20-Point Programme. Emphasis has been laid for education of the weaker section of the society including girls, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. The Seventh Plan envisages universalisation of elementary education and adult literacy by 1990. Priority has been given to the qualitative importance of education specially technical and higher education, vocationalisation of secondary education, development of regional languages, strengthening of monitoring and evaluation machinery for effective implementation of plan programmes etc. Emphasis

has also been laid on the especially dynamic and beneficial linkage between education, health, social welfare and employment programmes.

The highest priority has been given to the programme of universalisation of elementary education for fulfilment of the Constitutional Directive of providing universal and compulsory education to all children upto age of 14. Primary education is already free all over the country in all government, local body and aided schools. Some states and union territories administrations have also legislations for compulsory primary education.

In recognition of the importance of education of girls and women in accelerating socio-economic development, the Government has formulated variety of measures from time to time in this direction. As a result of these measures there had been gradual but progressive increase in the enrolment of girls over the plan periods and girls appeared to have been narrowing down during the last two decades.

CHAPTER 9

WASTAGE AND STAGNATION IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

Q. 1 What do you mean by 'Wastage' and 'Stagnation'? How the progress of primary education has been thwarted by wastage and stagnation?

A.s. The report of the Education Commission reads, "Wastage and Stagnation, like headache and fever, are not diseases in themselves; they are really symptoms of other diseases in the educational system, the chief among which are the lack of proper articulation between education and life and the poor capacity of the schools to attract and hold

students. To these may be added a third ailment—poverty, which falls outside the system”.

Now what is wastage and stagnation ?

When the pupils discontinue their studies before completing the course for which they were admitted, we call it wastage as the entire effort during this period to make him literate has been useless.

Stagnation means failure in class examinations as a result of which the pupils remain in the same class for years together i.e., they do not get promoted to the next higher class.

Wastage and Stagnation are very large in the lower primary stage.

Causes of Wastage and Stagnation are as follows :

- (a) Poverty of parents : The parents having very meagre income require the utilisation of the services of the children for supplementing their income, and take them away from school ;
- (b) Malnutrition of children ;
- (c) Indifference of teachers ;
- (d) Fresh admissions throughout the year without consideration of age ;
- (e) Lack of teachers' training causing inefficient teaching ;
- (f) Lack of accommodation, i. e., cheap and poor housing of schools and proper school environment ;
- (g) Existence of single-teacher schools ;
- (h) Lack of adequate number of teachers ;
- (i) Lack of interest of parents towards the education of their children ;
- (j) Irregular appointment of teachers ;
- (k) Irregular attendance ;
- (l) Lack of study materials required.

There are views on the slow progress and stagnation in primary education ;

1. *Population* : The British officials held that the large increase in population and accelerated birth-rate surpassed the expansion in Primary Education. In other words, the number of pupils to be educated increased every year.

2 *Death-rate* : High death-rate created wide gaps in the literates turned out by schools.

3. Premature withdrawal of children from schools led to wastage and stagnation. Only a small number of the students entering the primary schools, turned out as literates.

4. Certain intrinsic difficulties also stood in the way to the spread of mass literacy. These were—highly scattered villages, difficulties in communications, multiplicity of castes and languages, poverty and diseases, apathy of the people towards education etc.

5. Pupils once passing out primary schools, usually lapsed into illiteracy owing to absolute detachment from the educational environment.

Although the above reasons cannot be ruled out, they cannot be regarded as the sole reasons for non-attainment of the desired goal in compulsory primary education. The general public opinion differed from the official views. According to it, the reasons of wastage and stagnation are as follows :

(i) Persistent attention of the officials towards a qualitative improvement rather than quantitative expansion.

(ii) Neglect and ultimate disappearance of the indigenous schools. The new act of primary schools did not even compensate for this loss.

(iii) Never there was an adequacy of fund to meet the need of attening millions.

(iv) Emphasis was all along given on costlier departmental institutions. Private institutions which were less costly and which could achieve expansion at a lesser cost were neglected.

6. English was adopted as the medium of instruction.

This was a factor which repelled the pupils to continue their study after primary education.

7. Above all, absence of compulsory primary education was a leading factor which hindered the spread of mass education.

CHAPTER 10

AIMS AND FUNCTIONS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Q. 1. Write a few lines about Secondary Education.

Ans. Secondary Education now-a-day has undergone a revolutionary change in its objectives, standard and value. The single track curriculum aiming at preparing the students for the university entrance is no more the objective of secondary education. It now consists in a diversified course consisting of seven different groups or streams of subjects. At the end of Class VIII the student has to select the particular stream according to his interest and aptitude. This choice is a difficult task for the student who is just on the verge of treading the adolescent stage. He, therefore, requires proper guidance in the matter of selection. This service required by the student is referred to as 'educational guidance'.

Educational guidance is relatively a new conception having its origin in the U. S. A. At present, however, educational guidance movement is a part and parcel of educational programme in almost all progressive countries. The Mudaliar Commission on Secondary Education has observed that 'Guidance' involves the difficult art of helping boys and girls to plan their own future wisely, in the full light of all the factors that can be mastered about themselves and about the world in which they are to live and work. The Commission further remarks that it is not the work of a few experts, but it calls for a concerted service of all the staff

of the school under expert guidance. The educational guidance, therefore, be extended at all stages of a youth's education 'through the co-operative endeavour of understanding parents, teachers, headmasters, principals and guidance officers'. The term 'guidance', therefore, means an organised service designed to help pupils in adjusting themselves to various problems of their student life e.g., educational, vocational, health, moral, social and personal.

The importance of guidance in the educational life of a student cannot be overestimated. In earlier days, a child was to follow his father in both education and vocation. A professor's son was to be a professor, a lawyer's son a lawyer and their educational lines were decided accordingly. But nothing can be more unscientific than this. The innate tendency and interest of the child was utterly ignored. But a child's career has to be decided after taking into consideration his intellect, interest and aptitude, environment family circumstances, desire of parents and similar other factors. Without proper guidance this selection is impossible. The educational system was a simple affair in a simplified society. But with the increase in the number of vocational channels and in the number of children with individual differences, the problem has now been complicated.

Q. 2. Discuss the modern educational system.

Ans. The modern educational system, provides a large number of diversified courses to fit in the individual traits of the students as far as possible. Appropriate guidance should, therefore, consider the following factors :

(i) Complex psychological nature of the child—The pupil should know himself as an individual and as a member of the society. He should be able to correct his short-comings. He should know in details the vocations and be able to make a judicious choice of them. His abiding creative and recreational interests should be discovered and developed.

(ii) The complex social structure should be fully realised and considered in relation to the nature of the child.

(iii) There should be a proper understanding of the individual difference among the pupils.

The concept of education has now been changed. It does not simply mean acquiring of knowledge. It now envisages a change in the behaviour-pattern of the student through life-experiences so as to prepare him for the duties and responsibilities as a productive participant in a democratic life. Educational guidance, therefore plays an important role in a democratic country. The efficient democratic set-up is the product of an able educational guidance.

From the above discussions, it may be stated that a proper programme of educational guidance should be based in the following principles :

(1) Due regard should be given to the individual differences among the students.

(2) Regard should also be given to the possible changes in the economic status, aptitude and interests of the students.

(3) The selection of a stream should not be made in a hurry, but after a careful consideration of the openings available and in the light of experience gained through trials.

(4) Students should be given an adequate idea about the different vocations through film shows and actual visits to various industries under the guidance of able Guidance-officers.

(5) Vocational guidance should also be given concurrently with educational guidance, since the two are supplementary.

(6) In view of the undeniable interest and importance of the parents in the future of the child, the parents should be given an important place in the Guidance programme.

Guidance-corner is an essential feature of the educational guidance movement. The chief object of the guidance-corner is to unfold the particular fields of life, hitherto unseen by the student and create his interest therein. The most conspicuous place of the school is to be selected for

this purpose. The guidance teacher will organise the corner with the help of student representatives. The materials for the guidance corner shall include various charts, models, pictures, journals, statistics, pictographs, bulletins etc. showing the latest information on the educational and vocational systems. Outdated information should be replaced by current ones.

The organisation of a guidance-corner shall include the teachers and the students as well. The Headmaster should be the President and there should be a secretary, preferably the guidance-teacher. The guidance-teacher should find adequate time to see to the successful utilisation of the guidance-corner. For this, the pressure of his normal works should be suitably reduced. Occasional group discussion, cinema show, magic lantern, educational visits to vocational centres and industries should be organised by the corner. Educational guidance inseparably linked with vocational guidance. So, adequate co-operation should be secured from different educational and vocational institutions, Publicity Department of Government, National and other Libraries etc. The students should also be encouraged to collect, by their own initiative, materials for the guidance corner, which should be displayed in a proper manner.

Cumulative record card is an essential and useful instrument in educational guidance. The traditional progress reports used in schools hitherto were hardly complete. They gave no indication of the all-round development of the students, which is now considered as the sole object of education. So, under the present system, a cumulative record card against each student is maintained in school. The card presents a complete picture of the extent of development of the student in all respects—intellectual, physical, social and moral. The maintenance of the cumulative record card requires a good deal of patience, power of observation and training and skill of the teachers maintaining such cards. It also requires a close co-operation and understanding between the class-teacher, subject teacher, physical instructor and other members of the school-society directly concerned with the welfare

of the students. Scientifically prepared, the score card represents the development of the entire personality of the student. It helps the guidance officer or the teacher immensely to make a correct assessment of the students interest and aptitude intellectual and physical standard, and to provide a correct guidance in his choice of subjects and vocation.

It is redeeming to note that the State Governments have set up Educational and psychological Bureau in their respective States. A Vocational Guidance and Counselling Department has been opened in all important Employment Exchange. A Research Centre has been established by the Central Government for conducting research on guidance and counselling. The system will further expand, as in case of other developed countries, with the industrial development of India.

Q. 3. What is a multipurpose school? Explain clearly its functions, aims and objective.

Ans. The educational system of a country aims at catering to the educational requirement of the different group of people according to their age, taste, ability and temperament. Wide variations in these factors have laid to the different stages of education like primary, secondary and universities education. The primary education is a form of basic education. It aims at the initial development of a child's faculties along with teaching them in the three R's. The base or foundation of the child having been consolidated, it qualifies itself to receive secondary education. It serves to satisfy the thirst for knowledge of the children in different directions according to their taste and ability. It covers a wide range of subjects to serve the purpose of different kind of temperament. A form of school for secondary education has been termed as multipurpose school. The age of a child for multipurpose education is very important. It corresponds to the period of adolescence e. g., from eleven years to sixteen or seventeen years. It determines the future form of the child. The multipurpose education is a very significant phase in the entire educational process.

A multipurpose school is a form of secondary education,

which covers the field of senior basic, junior technical, six year secondary school (class V to class X), higher secondary school (class V to class XI), Senior Cambridge and the like. The existing schools of the country may be classified as under :

- (i) Pre-primary, Pre-basic and Nursury schools.
- (ii) Primary schools and Junior Basic Senior Schools.
- (iii) Post-primary schools and basic schools.
- (iv) Secondary schools—Ten-year schools, Eleven-year schools, Senior Cambridge schools.

On principle, the posts primary schools can be called secondary schools and it has been decided to establish a uniform pattern of secondary schools. Now, among the eleven-year secondary schools, two slightly different forms exist. One is Higher Secondary school and the other is Multipurpose schools. The main difference lies in the curriculum. The multipurpose school has been provided with a vocational and technical group of subjects in addition to the subjects taught in the Higher Secondary Schools.

The multipurpose school has all the functions of a secondary school. *First*, it opens the door to higher education of a student and prepares the foundation for his higher education. The primary education has secured the fullest potential growth of the child in an integrated matter. The secondary education provides for a diversified field of knowledge according to the individual taste, ability and propensity. *Secondly*, the multipurpose school provides conditions to the child for his preparation for an adult life. The mental frame-work built during the period of education perpetuates and becomes the adult personality. In addition, it provides technical and vocational education in order to enable the child to enter into the greater life of activity or his vocation. It is also a preparatory stage for the future citizenship. The secondary education has been called the back-bone of the national education.

The existing secondary education is considered to be defective. It consists in more or less a unified curriculum of

subjects. Attempts have been directed to mark the secondary education multipurpose. This does not mean to make a child 'Jack of all trades', but aims at providing the desired education to a particular child according to his taste, ardour and inclination. So, the child is now free to choose any one of the following groups of subjects viz., (a) Humanities; (b) Science; (c) Technical; (d) Commerce; (e) Agriculture; (f) Fine Arts and (g) Home Science. In addition, he is given general education in the following: (i) Language, (ii) General Science; (iii) Social Science, (iv) Crafts.

Multipurpose school aims not only at giving general education, but also to preparing the child for higher education. After the completion of multipurpose educational course, the student can either go to the University for higher education or take a vocation and start in career. So, the multipurpose school aims at a self-complete education.

Another object of the multipurpose school is the selection of talents and giving the opportunity to exhibit their capabilities in the particular fields of knowledge and skill. This is possible in the diversified courses provided for.

The multipurpose school unfolds before the child a clear idea about mankind, the society and the outer world at large. He wants to educate himself in order to meet the need of the outer world. The multipurpose school aims at producing future citizens who will reach the social object and meet the economic needs of the society. It should be conscious to the individual requirements of the students.

In fine, we may reasonably hope that the multipurpose school is not purely an agency of formal education. It should provide the child with an environment during his primary education which will give him impetus and urge towards experimentation and thereby help him to establish his own personality and to develop it to the highest degree of social perfection. The multipurpose school may be regarded as an office to furnish a social environment in which the real and meaningful activities of the race are simplified and balanced so as to train children in co-operative and mutually helpful living.

CHAPTER 11

LORD MACAULAY'S MINUTE

Q. 1. What was the original and explicit intention of Macaulay's Minute on Indian education? Comment on Macaulay's idea on education in India.

Or, Explain the significance of Macaulay's Minute. How did its acceptance by the Govt. influence the subsequent course of Indian education?

Ans. *Introduction:* After the General Committee of Public Instruction was set up in 1823, a strong controversy persisted among the members themselves. The controversy mainly centred round the aim of education. This is known as the famous Anglicist Classicist controversy. It continued for nearly twelve years. Naturally, much headway could not be made due to the constant difference of opinion among the members. Macaulay's Minute came as an over-riding decision and it resolved the longstanding controversy.

Essential Features of Macaulay's Minute: In 1835 the papers containing the arguments of the Classicists were placed before Lord Macaulay's, the Chairman of the General Committee of the Public Instruction and the Law Member of the Executive Council. He, in the capacity of Law Member wrote a Minute on the 2nd February, 1835 and summarily rejected the views of the Classicists. He gave his unreserved support to the Western Education through English medium.

The essential features of Macaulay's Minute are discussed below:

1. The following extract from the Minute will adequately explain the real intention of Macaulay:

"We must at present do our best to form a class who may be interpreters between us and the millions whom we govern class persons, Indian in blood and colour, but English in a tastes, in opinions in morals, and in intellect."

The Minute expressed Macaulay's intention to render this class 'by degrees fit vehicles for conveying knowledge to the great mass of the population'. He went as far as possible with the hope that "by the good government of the British, a day may come when the Indians would demand European Institution". In fact, he wanted to westernise Indian education through the minor intellectuals of India. This was known as the "Downwards Filtration Theory".

2. He rebutted the arguments of the Orientalists in their interpretation of the term 'literature' in Charter Act of 1813. He explained that literature meant English literature and it had nothing to do with the classics like Sanskrit and Arabic, which according to him were insignificant. He eulogised the English literature in his sweeping remarks that "A single shelf of a good European library was worth the whole native literature to India and Arabia."

3. He also refuted the interpretation of the term "learned natives of India" by describing them as "a class of persons, Indian in blood and colour, but English in tastes, in opinions in morals and in intellect."

4. As to the question of prejudices of the Indians against English education, Macaulay argued that it was their duty to teach the Indians what was really good for them, even if it was very unpalatable.

5. As regards the promotion of the knowledge of science, he held that it was impossible to accomplish it without English as the medium of instruction.

Macaulay's other arguments to establish the claim of English education were as follows :

(a) English was the most prominent language and it was the language of the British rulers. It would thus be easier for the rulers to effect the educational programme better in English.

(b) In the field of varied dialects of India and the East, English, was gradually shaping as a commercial language.

(c) English held a prospect of integration of India.

(d) The upper sections of the Indians themselves had a bent on English education.

With all these arguments Macaulay recommended the spread of western education through the medium of English language, bringing up European Institutions in the country and closing down all the institutions of oriental learning.

Q. 2. Write a critical appreciation on Macaulay's Minutes.

Ans. A close analysis of the features of Macaulay's Minute makes it crystal clear that Macaulay was nearly opinionated on the supremacy of English literature and language. To him what was English superb and anything oriental was a trifle. He came to India with a preconceived notion about India's culture and education. But as a matter of fact, he had little idea about oriental literatures, the Shastras and the Puranas. So he had naturally advocated for the English education.

The action of Lord Macaulay has both been eulogised and condemned. He was regarded by some as the 'torch-bearer in the path of progress', while others blame him for deprecating Indian trading tradition and culture and for the total disregard towards the mass education. None of the views are wholly correct. Being an agent of the British rulers, it was natural for him to advocate western education with which he was familiar. But before Macaulay expressed his views, the Indians themselves had proceeded much towards western education. Raja Rammohan may be cited as a pioneer in the movement in this direction. So Macaulay cannot be regarded as the "torch-bearer". The desire for western education already existed and Macaulay only expedited the decision by forwarding his historical Minute. He can, however, be praised for his timely action in resolving the nearly deadlock position created by the division among the members of the General Committee.

Macaulay may, however, be blamed for under-rating the India literature, culture and religions. But here again the sole responsibility was not his. The enlightened Indians had already been inspired by a wave of westernisation and feeling

of neglect towards oriental languages. The leading socialists advised him to introduce western education through the medium of English. So if he is to be blamed, he must share the blame with the Indians. It has, therefore, been observed by some that the credit or discredit of introducing English education into India does not exclusively go to Lord Macaulay.

We must admit here that his dream, "that having become instructed in European knowledge they may, in some future age, demand European institutions" ultimately turned into a reality. He can thus be credited for having introduced western culture in the oriental land.

Effect of Macaulay's Minute: Macaulay's Minute was readily accepted by the then Governor-General, Lord Bentinck. He passed an order effecting a new system of western education and stopping all grants for the printing of oriental works.

The schools and colleges of Indian learning were not prohibited but further stipends were denied to the new students of oriental languages. All funds were utilised in furtherance of education through the medium of English.

As an immediate effect of this, English schools and colleges developed throughout the Indian territory. Zilla Schools were started in all important towns of the presidencies. Since any new expenditure on vernacular education was totally prohibited, vernacular was, so to say, ostracized in these institution. Naturally, vernacular and the oriental languages were neglected to a great extent.

On the other hand, interest for western education grew up partly achieving a distinctive mark in society and partly for gaining privilege in getting positions in the Government. While high school and college education was highly encouraged, the elementary education was utterly neglected. The result was that only a small privileged section could receive higher education, and the teeming millions of the rural areas were left under the darkness of illiteracy. Thus, the much cherished "Downward Filtration Theory" of Macaulay failed

to secure the desired result of teaching the mass through the selected few.

Q. 3. Explain the significance of Macaulay's Minutes. How did their acceptance by the Government influence the subsequent course of Indian Education ?

Ans. After the General Committee of Public Instruction was set up in 1823, a strong controversy persisted among the members themselves. The controversy mainly centred round the aim of education. This is known as the famous Anglicist-Classicist Controversy. It continued for nearly twelve years. Naturally, much headway could not be made due to this constant difference of opinion among the members. Macaulay's Minute came as an over-riding decision and it resolved the long standing controversy.

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The essential features of Macaulay's Minute will adequately explain the real intention of Macaulay :

"We must at present do our best to form a class who may be interpreters between us and the millions whom we govern, a class of persons, Indian in blood and colour, but English in tastes, in opinions, in morals, and in intellect."

The Minute expressed Macaulay's intention to render this class by degrees fit vehicles for conveying knowledge to the great mass of the population. He went as far as possible with the hope that by the good government of the British, a day may come when the Indians would demand European Institutions. In fact, he wanted to westernise Indian Education through the minor intellectuals of India. This was known as the "Downward Infiltration Theory."

He rebutted the arguments of the Orientalists in their interpretation of the term 'literature' in Charter Act of 1813. He explained that literature meant English literature and it had nothing to do with the classics like Sanskrit, and Arabic, which according to him were sweeping remarks that "A single shelf of a good European library was worth the whole native literature of India and Arabia."

He also refuted the interpretation of the term "learned natives of India" by describing them as a class of persons, Indian in blood and colour, but English in tastes, in opinions, in morals and in intellect."

As to the question of prejudices of the Indians against English education, Macaulay argued that it was their duty to teach the Indians what was really good for them, even if it was very unpalatable.

As regards the promotion of the knowledge of science, he held it was impossible to accomplish it without English as the medium of instruction.

His other arguments to establish the claim of English education were as follows :

1. English was the most prominent language and it was the language of the British rulers. It would thus be easier for the rulers to effect the educational programme better in English.

2. In the field of varied dialects of India and the East, English was gradually shaping as a commercial language.

3. English had a prospect of integration of India.

4. The upper sections of the Indians themselves had a bent on English education.

With all these arguments Macaulay recommended the spread of Western education through the medium of English language, bringing up European Institutions in the country and closing down all the institution of oriental learning.

Criticism : A close analysis of the features of Macaulay's

Minutes makes it crystal clear that Macaulay was nearly opinionated on the supremacy of English literature and language. To him what was English superb and anything oriental was a trifle. He came to India with a preconceived notion about India's culture and education. But as a matter of fact, he had little idea about oriental literature, the *Sastras* and the *Puranas*. So he had naturally advocated for the English Education.

The action of Lord Macaulay has both been eulogised and connected. He was regarded by some as the "torch-bearer in the path of progress", while others blame him for deprecating Indian tradition and culture and for the total disregards towards the mass education. None of the views is wholly correct. Being an agent of the British rulers, it was natural for him to advocate Western education with which he was familiar. But before Macaulay expressed his views, the Indians themselves had proceeded much towards Western education. Raja Rammohan may be cited as a pioneer in the movement in this direction. So Macaulay cannot be regarded as the 'torch-bearer'. The desire for western education already existed and Macaulay only expedited the decision by forwarding his historical Minute. He can, however, be praised for his timely action in resolving the nearly deadlock position created by the division among the members of the General Committee.

Macaulay may, however, be blamed for under-rating the Indian literature, culture and religion. But here again the sole responsibility was not his. The enlightened Indians had already been inspired by a wave of Western educations and a feeling of neglect towards oriental languages. The leading socialists and educationists advised him to introduce western education through the medium of English. So if he is to blame, he must share the blame with the Indians. It has, therefore, been observed by some that the credit or discredit of introducing English education in India does not exclusively go to Lord Macaulay.

We must admit here that his dream, "that having become instructed in European knowledge they may, in some future

age, demand European Institution" ultimately turned into reality. He can thus be credited for having introduced western culture in the oriental land.

Effect: Macaulay's Minute was readily accepted by the then Governor-General, Lord Bentinck. He passed an order effecting a new pattern of system of Western Education and stopping all grants for the printing of oriental works.

The schools and colleges of Indian learning were not prohibited but further stipends were denied to the new students of oriental languages. All funds were utilised in furtherance of education through the medium of English.

But as an immediate effect, English schools and colleges developed throughout the territory. Zilla schools were started in the important towns of the presidencies. Since any new expenditure on vernacular education was prohibited, vernacular was, so to say, ostracised in these institutions. Naturally, vernacular and the oriental languages were neglected to a great extent.

On the other hand, interest for western education grew up, partly achieving a distinctive mark in society and partly for gaining privilege in getting positions in the Government. While high school and college educations were highly encouraged, the elementary education was utterly neglected. The result was that only a small privileged section could receive higher education, the teeming millions of the rural are being left under the darkness of illiteracy. Thus, the much cherished 'Downward Infiltration Theory' of Macaulay failed to secure the desired result of teaching the masses through the selected few.

Q. 4. Give a critical view of Macaulay's Minute on education in India.

Ans. For a long time it has been generally held by the historians and educationists that it was Macaulay's Minute which proved decisive in the introduction of English as the medium of instruction. But the ground had already been prepared long before Macaulay arrived in India. The historical process of the entire movement had been in opera-

tion for a long time and nothing caused or moved this process more than the Evangelical and Utilitarian ideas. Further more, the public employment of Indians in places where the number of Europeans could be curtailed on grounds of economy gave stimulus to education. The Chairman of the Court of Directors, William Astell in his letter to William Bentinck, reflected the anxiety of the court to afford every reasonable faculty for the education of the natives. Bentinck anticipated collateral advantages by introducing English as the language of public business in all departments and the authorities in England though preferring English to Persian, hinted at the adoption of vernacular languages, but still left the whole question to the better judgement and superior local knowledge of Bentinck.

When Bentinck reached India, British power was established more firmly than at any former time. In England, he had met James Mill at Mrs. Grote's house and assured him that in reality Bentham would be the Governor-General of India. Bentham wrote to Bentinck on November 19, 1829. "It seems to me that I behold the golden age of India lying before me, and very much desired Bentinck to encourage the diffusion of education and useful knowledge." Bentinck was a simple, though confirmed Westerner, who had both intellectual and moral clarity. He had a utilitarian faith in education as a means for the elevation of human character. He wrote of the British language as the key to all improvements. In his letter of 1st June, 1834, to Mancy he outlined his views on education; "General education in my panacea for the regeneration of India." It seems clear that before Macaulay reached India, Bentinck had already formulated his plans. Charles Trevelyan's letters to Bentinck indicate that being a compound of a radical and a despot, Bentinck was waiting for the ripe moment, and there seems a clear and delightful conspiracy between him and the young, fervent Trevelyan, who in his frenzied zeal, intended to secure the preference of European over Oriental learning. Trevelyan dreamt of planting Western civilisation not only in India but in the whole of Asia, and regarded 'English language' as a proper means for doing so.

Lord Bentinck watched carefully the indications—the thoughts and disposition of Hindus to learn English—and he utilised his power firmly in actually moulding the process then at work. As compared with Mill Bentinck has an extra advantage in this that being on the spot, he was more able to assert in practice the doctrine of utility. He had a hand in the game that was being played and he hit the ball now more clearly than before and fulfilled what Grant had hoped, what Mill had pushed forward, what Trevelyan had almost decided upon with Bentinck, what E. Ryan had long entertained, and what Macaulay put forth in a bold and highly coloured fashion in his Minute reflecting much of Bentinck's mind, though the latter might not have appreciated the sentimental parts.

Macaulay was a mixture of the Benthamite theory of legislation and Evangelical vehemence in sentiment. His Minute on education was brilliant, though he tried to disguise the thinness of his legal reason by taking refuge in bold and emphatic rhetoric. His main thesis was that all the learning of the East was nothing besides the metaphysics of Locke and physics of Newton, and that it was only the torch of Western learning that could illumine the Indian mind, submerged in superstition and ignorance. His views on Indian society reflected utilitarian contempt for oriental civilisation and his Minute reads like James Mill's compositions. He advocated a root and branch policy to sweep away everything of the past and to write afresh. Macaulay pointed out that English books in India were much in demand whereas Sanskrit and Arabic books found practically no purchasers. His object was to "form a class of persons Indian in blood and colour, but English in taste, in opinions and in morals and intellect." The Orientalists, led by Prinsep, thought it impracticable to make English the language of the people, and were of the opinion that the introduction of English would upset the existing arrangements and kill vernaculars. They argued that the stuff might be in greater degree European, but must in all cases be interwoven with home-spun material. Macaulay, on the other hand, pointed out the plight of those students from Sanskrit College who found no

employment anywhere, and considered that the dialects and no value. Macaulay passed his Minute on to Bentinck and made the whole problem clearer and more intelligible than ever before and created a peculiar situation. When solution—one way or the other naturally influenced by his threat of resignation—could no longer be postponed. Bentinck grasped the reality and the intensity of the situation, and gave his entire concurrence to the sentiments expressed by Macaulay in the Minute. Macaulay was not the herald of the down. His thesis merely confirmed Bentinck's opinions, who issued his Resolution of the 7th March, 1835, which stated: "The great object of the British Government, ought to be the promotion of European literature and science among the natives of India; and all the funds appropriated for the purpose of education would be best employed on English education alone."

It is not possible here to deal at length with the various criticisms of the new educational policy. Reference may only be made to a few of them. It has been held that the effect of English education has been to create a group sharply separated from their fellow Indians, and almost setting up a new caste in the caste-ridden country. Nobody can deny the truth of the charge, so far at least as the best part of the nineteenth century is concerned. The main reason for this is the very small number of men who were educated in English as compared with the rest of who had no such education. Besides, the English educated classes at first occupied higher administrative posts and this created a cleavage between them and the masses. Far worse was, however, maintain. Their liberal ideas found little favour with the orthodox members of the family, particularly the women folk who clung to the old traditional ideas, customs and practices. The educated few might discuss the liberal principles among themselves, in clubs or other associations, but fell in the old groove as soon as they returned home. This condition was not conducive, either to the mental peace or to the intellectual development of the class as a whole. This is one of the

reasons why Western education did not produce all the benefits that could be reasonably expected.

There is, however, one criticism, often repeated even now, against the new educational policy which is due to misunderstanding. It has been regretted by many on the ground that it gave an undue favour to English against vernacular as the medium of instruction. As a matter of fact, the decision merely meant that English, and not Sanskrit or Arabic, should be the medium of higher education. It had no reference to vernacular which would remain the medium of a system of national education embracing every village in the country. This was clearly laid down in the report of the committee drawn up in the same year in which the above resolution about English education was passed. Even the Orientalists never fought for making vernaculars the medium of instruction. It was not a practical proposition in those days where, as in Bengal, vernaculars were not sufficiently developed to be used as the vehicle of instruction in higher branches of literature and science.

The Orientalist, however, did not accept the new policy, lying down. As a protest, two of them retired from the Committee Public Instruction. A petition, staged by 10,000 Hindu inhabitants of Calcutta and of districts, was sent to the Court of Directors protesting against the Resolution of 1835. The Asiatic Society sent a memorial to the local government whereas the Court of Directors and the Board of Control were pressed hard by the strong remonstrances from the Royal Asiatic Society. For long the Home authorities, were unwilling to send their orders on the subject of the changes in education in Bengal and Hobhouse, who replaced Charles Grant as President of the Board of control and Hobhouse, who replaced Charles Grant as President of the Board of control refrained from provoking another controversy and appreciated Auckland's Minute of November, 1939. To Auckland both Macaulay and Prinsep represented extreme positions and here operated the English sense of compromise which brought the issues comparatively nearer, and reconciled existing difference of opinion. Auckland did not reverse Bentinck's decision, but modified it and restored to a certain

extent the altogether neglected. Oriental learning which met the approbation of the Court of Directors in their Despatch of January 20, 1941, though they did not express any decided opinion on the medium of instruction.

- ④ The main obj. was to put off the govt. from passing uncertainties - like ① The future of the govt. which was uncertain
 ② The loyalty of the Indians &
 ③ The effectiveness of British Regime.

SUPREMACY

CHAPTER 12

WOOD'S DESPATCH OF 1854

Q. 1. Why is Woods Despatch considered an important land-mark in the history of Indian Education? Mention its important recommendations and show how these recommendations influenced the later course of education in India.

Or, What were the important features of Wood's Despatch of 1854? Do you consider the Despatch to be the "Magna Carta" of Indian Education? Give reasons in support of your answer.

Or, What is significance of Wood's Despatch in the history of Indian Education?

Ans. Background: After the renewal of the Company's Charter in 1853, attempts were directed to lay down a clearly defined policy of the Government on the educational system in India. Accordingly, the Court of Directors issued on the 19th July, 1854, the famous Educational Despatch, known as Wood's Despatch. It was named so after its writer, Charles Wood, the President of the Board of Control at that time. After Bentinck's proclamation on the hands of the missionaries. Gradually the apprehension of the Company that the education by the missionaries would be unwelcome to the Indians, proved to be wrong. The Company's officers and the missionaries ultimately came to very good terms. It was in this spirit of comradeship in a common cause that the Despatch of 1854 was written.

Recommendations of the Despatch: The important recom-

recommendations of the Despatch which laid down a definite policy of the Govt. for the improvement of the educational system in India are given below :

(1) A department of education should be created in each province and that the department should be in charge of a high powered officer designated as "Director of Public Instruction." → *report 2 Englishmen (Colonialism).*

(2) In each of the presidency towns a university should be established on the model of the London University. Each University will have a Chancellor, a Vice-Chancellor and a Senate. These universities will control and hold examinations.

(3) Attempt should be made to increase the number of Govt. schools and colleges. But such an extension will only meet the local needs without competing with the existing institutions.

(4) More attention should be directed to the indigenous schools for the spread of elementary education.

(5) Middle schools should be opened as far as possible in order to maintain a link between the elementary schools and the high schools.

(6) Grant-in-aid should be given to private undertakings strictly on the principle of perfect religious neutrality. There would, however, be provision for inspection by Government.

(7) Series of scholarship should be provided. These will draw the meritorious students from the lower schools to the higher schools and from the higher schools to the colleges.

(8) Adequate number of training institutions should be started for imparting training to the teachers of high schools.

(9) Emphasis should be given of practical and vocational subjects in schools.

(10) Govt. should cordially support female education in the country.

(11) In making appointment to Government situations, due

preference should be given to educational qualifications. Educated Indians should be given due consideration in this regard.

(12) With the progress of the system of grants-in-aid. Government should recede from direct management of the educational system as possible.

Effect : The Despatch of 1854 had a spectacular influence on the educational system in India. As an immediate effect universities were started in Calcutta, Madras and Bombay. An Education Department was formed in each Presidency. It undertook management, supervision, control and co-ordination of the educational activities in the province. The Despatch gently encouraged secondary education. Elementary and vernacular education also received certain impetus. The system of grants-in-aid, teachers' training, and of granting scholarships highly improved the school and college education. Responsibility of the state in the country's education was recognised. This, no doubt, paved the way to a regular system of education. The Despatch introduced the study of art, science, philosophy and literature. At the same time, it encouraged the growth of Indian languages. Educated Indians were given employments. In fine, the Despatch created a stir in the educational system of the country. It is considered as an important land-mark in the history of education in India.

Conclusion : The Wood's Despatch opened a new era of organised education in India. It has, therefore, been eulogised by many as the "Magna Carta of Indian Education".

Criticism : A closer examination of the recommendations made in the Despatch will reveal certain short-comings, which are discussed below :—

(1) Although it recommended a state system of education, it did not enunciate any state responsibility for compulsory primary education.

(2) The ideal of universal literacy was not even suggested.

(3) Although a balanced encouragement was promised for higher education and elementary education, more emphasis was given, in practice, to higher education. As a result, the school and college education outgrew the primary and vernacular education the latter remaining a pious wish only.

(4) The proposal of giving encouragement to useful and practical education did not materialise.

(5) The programme of mass education, as intended, was not carried out.

(6) Private enterprise was discouraged and more expensive Govt. institutions were increased.

These defects of the Wood's Despatch will show that it was not worth the eulogy of being described as the "Magna Carta of Indian Education."

Q. 2. Give the salient features of the proclamation of Lord William Bentinck.

Ans. The salient features of the proclamation of Lord William Bentinck are as follows :

(1) It was declared that the intention of the British Government ought to be the promotion of European literature and science among the Indians. Hence, all funds appropriated for the purpose of education would be best employed in English education alone.

(2) It was not intended to abolish the indigenous school or colleges. It was, however, hoped that the native population would be inclined to avail themselves of the opportunity by the new policy.

(3) The General Committee was directed not to spend any further amount in printing oriental works.

(4) It was specifically directed that the sum of money which would be placed at the disposal of the Committee should be hereafter employed in imparting to the Indian population a knowledge of English literature and science through the medium of English.

So far as the higher education schools colleges was concerned, Bentinck's proclamation thwarted the development of vernacular and oriental classics.

Q. 3. Who was the appointing authority of Hunter Commission in India ? Discuss under what circumstances and for what purpose the Commission was appointed.

Ans. Lord Ripon appointed this Commission in 1882 with Sri W. W. Hunter as its Chairman.

The recommendations of Wood's Despatch of 1854 did not bring about any material improvement in the Primary Education of the country. The position and role of the missionaries were also not clearly defined. So, the Commission was appointed with a view to enquiring into the working of the existing system of public instruction and to the further extension of that system of popular basis. The Commission was also asked to advise on the following issues :

- (1) The role and function of the Government in different stage of education.
- (2) The policy of the Government with regard to the private institutions.
- (3) The place of missionaries in the field of Education.
- (4) Whether the Government should withdraw from direct educational enterprise.

Q. 4. Why do some people consider the Wood's Despatch of 1854 a 'Magna Carta' of Indian education ?

Ans. The Despatch of 1854 marked a spectacular influence on the educational system of India. ① An our immediate effect universities were started in Calcutta, Madras and Bombay. ② An educational Department was formed in each Presidency. It undertook management supervision, control and co-ordination of the educational activities in the province. ③ The Despatch greatly encouraged secondary education. Elementary and vernacular education also received certain impetus. ④ The system of grants-in-aid, teachers training, and scholarships highly improved the school and college education. ⑤ Responsibility of the state in country's

education was recognised. This paved the way to a state system of education. (6) The Despatch introduced the study of Arts, Science, Philosophy and Literature. At the same time it encouraged the growth of Indian languages. (7) The Despatch created a stir in the educational system of the country. It is for all these notable contributions that the Despatch may be considered an important landmark in the history of education in India.

The Wood's Despatch opened a new era of organised education. It has, therefore, been eulogised by many as the Magna Carta of Indian Education. But a closer examination of the recommendations will reveal several shortcomings. These defects of the Wood's Despatch will show that it was not worth the eulogy of being described as the Magna Carta of Indian education.

Q. 5. What were the essential features of Wood's Despatch, 1854?

Ans. In 1854, Sir Charles Wood, President of the Board of Control, sent a Despatch to the Court of Directors and it has been described as 'the Magna Carta of English education' in India. It enunciated the aim of education as the diffusion of arts, science, philosophy and literature of Europe. The study of Indian language was to be encouraged. The English language was to be taught wherever there was a demand for it. Both English and the Indian languages were to be used as media for the diffusion of the European knowledge. It was felt that time had come for the establishment of universities in India which were to encourage liberal education. The universities were to be established on the model of the London University. Each university was to consist of a Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor and a Senate. The institutions affiliated to the university were to be periodically visited by Government Inspectors. Institutions for the training of teachers for all classes of schools were to be established. The existing Government schools and colleges were to be maintained and their number was to be increased if and when necessary. New Middle schools were to be esta-

blished. More attention was to be given to elementary education. The system of grants-in-aid was to be started by the Government to help private enterprise. Those grants were to be given on the principles of religious neutrality. A comprehensive system of scholarship was to be started. Female education was to be encouraged by the Government. A Director of Public Instruction was to be appointed in every province. He was to be assisted by Inspectors and Assistant or Deputy Inspectors.

By 1857 three universities were established in Calcutta, Madras and Bombay. Each of these universities had at first the four faculties,—namely those of Arts-cum-Science, Law, Medicine and Engineering, to which was added subsequently a separate Science Faculty. These universities remained affiliating and examining bodies.

Q. 6. Discuss the background and point out the significance of Wood's Despatch, 1854.

Ans. The subject of education received serious consideration of the Company's Government on the eve of the renewal of the Charter of 1853. Lord Dalhousie himself took interest in mass education. He desired to establish a complete class of vernacular schools, to extend throughout the whole of India, with a view to convey instruction to the masses of people. He also proposed to place the higher education of the people, especially in Calcutta, on a footing adequate to the wants of the community and worthy of the Government of the Hon'ble Company. With the encouragement of the Government-General, the local Governments in Bengal, Bombay and the Punjab extended encouragement to vernacular education. Further a Parliamentary Committee, appointed to enquire into the state of education, examined a number of witnesses including experienced persons like Trevelyan and Duff.

A highly significant step regarding education in India was soon taken by the Company's Government. It was the famous Educational Despatch No. 49, dated 19th July, 1854, which was drafted by Sir Charles Wood, President of the Board of Control and for particularly into the manner in which

effect had been given to the principles of the Despatch of 1854, and to suggest such measures as might seem desirable in order to further carrying out of the policy therein laid down.

Though the chief object of enquiry of this commission was to be the present state of elementary education and the mean by which this can everywhere be extended and improved, it collected plenty of useful information about collegiate education, especially regarding attendance, fees, discipline and later career of the students.

Some of its important recommendations were : (i) withdrawal of state from direct management and support of institutions for higher education should be by slow and cautious steps ; (ii) provisions to be made for ordinary financial aid and special grants to colleges ; (iii) In order to encourage diversity of culture, both on the literary and on the physical side, there should be provision in all the larger colleges, Government and aided, for more than one of the alternative courses laid down by the universities ; (iv) An attempt to be made to prepare a moral text-book, based upon the fundamental principles of natural religion. Such as may be taught in all Government and non-Government colleges ; (v) The Principal or one of the Professors in each Government and aided college to deliver to each of the college classes in every session in all Government and non-Government colleges a series of lectures on the duties of a man and a citizen ; (vi) Observance of certain general principles for college fees and exemption from these and attendance and (vii) framing new regulations for grant of scholarships.

The Educational Despatch of 1854, described as the 'Magna Carta of English Education in India' formed a landmark in the history of education in modern India, because it outlined a comprehensive plan which supplied the basis for the subsequent development of educational system in this country. This Despatch, the principles of which were confirmed by the secretary of state for India in the Despatch of the 7th April, 1859, commended to the special attention, of the Government of India the improvement and far wider

extension of education, both English and vernacular, and recommended the following measures for the attainment of these objects : (i) the constitution of a separate department of the administration for education ; (ii) the institution of universities at the presidency towns ; (iii) the establishment of institutions for training teachers for all classes of schools ; (iv) the maintenance of the existing Government colleges and High Schools and the increase of their number when necessary ; (v) the establishment of new Middle Schools ; (vi) increased attention to vernacular schools, indigenous or others, for elementary education, and (vii) the introduction of a system of grants-in-aid. The attention of the Government was specially directed to the importance of placing the means of acquiring useful and practical knowledge within reach of the great mass of the people. The English language is to be the medium of instruction in the higher branches and vernacular in the lower. English is to be taught where there is a demand and for it, but it is not to be substituted for the vernacular languages of the country. The system of grants-in-aid is to be based on the principle of perfect religious neutrality. A comprehensive system of scholarships is to be instituted so as to connect lower schools with higher schools with colleges. Female education is to receive the frank and cordial support of Government.

In accordance with the recommendation of Wood's Despatch steps were taken to form an Education Department in each of the great territorial divisions of India as then constituted, and before the end of 1856 the new system was fairly at work.

A Director of Public Instruction was appointed in each province, with a staff of Inspectors and Deputy or Assistant Inspectors. The Education Department in each province came directly under the Provincial Government. Under this arrangement the Education Department became more or less officialised in character. It has been rightly pointed out by Prof. Dodwell that the men in charge of these Departments being primarily administrators, education tended to become a matter of administration and routines. The anomaly has continued more or less till now.

CHAPTER 13

HUNTER'S COMMISSION ON SECONDARY EDUCATION

Q. 1. Discuss the impact of Hunter's Commission on Secondary and Collegiate Education.

Ans. Lord Ripon in 1882 appointed the 'Indian Education Commission' with Sir W. W. Hunter as its chairman. The Commission was popularly known as 'The Hunter's Commission of 1882'. The Commission was appointed with a view to enquiring into the working of the existing system of public instruction and to the further extension of that system on a popular basis. The Commission was also asked to advise on the following issues :

(1) The role and function of the Government in the different stages of education.

(2) The policy of the Government with regard to the private institution.

(3) The place of missionaries in the field of education.

(4) Whether the Government should withdraw from direct educational enterprise.

The Commission advised the Government on the general policies and also made elaborate recommendations on the primary, secondary and collegiate education. As regards withdrawal of the Government from the direct educational enterprise the Commission suggested that the Government should not only curtail the expansion of its institutions, but should withdraw from direct enterprise as soon as a suitable agency, public or private becomes available to carry on the work. Regarding the role of the missionaries, the Commission was, however, not in favour of the withdrawal of the direct departmental agency in favour of the missionaries.

The Commission made detailed recommendations on various aspects of secondary and collegiate education.

Secondary Education :

The following recommendations were made in respect of Secondary Education.

(a) The Government should recede from the direct management of secondary schools. These should be left to private management and be assisted by liberal grants-in-aid.

(b) The Government should, however, directly maintain one efficient school in each district to serve as a model.

(c) The fees charged in the private school should be less than the fees charged in Government schools.

(d) Vocational courses should be provided in the school curriculum side by side with the academic courses.

(e) Teachers should be trained in the method of teaching and their success in the examination should be a condition for permanent employment.

As regards medium of instruction the Commission's silence may be interpreted as its leaning towards English.

Collegiate Education :

The recommendations on collegiate education was chiefly as follows :

(a) Government should recede from the field of collegiate education as far as possible.

(b) Grants-in-aid to colleges should be determined only by the strength of their staff, expenditure on maintenance and efficiency of the colleges.

(c) More than one alternative course should be provided to meet the needs of various types of students.

(d) Scholarships should be provided to meritorious graduates for higher studies abroad.

(e) Fees in aided colleges should be less than the fees in government colleges.

The report of the Hunter's Commission is an important document in the history of education in India. It made some valuable recommendations. *First*, it suggested extension of primary education through legislation. *Secondly*, it recommended the inclusion of two courses in secondary education. *Thirdly*, it laid a great emphasis on the private enterprise, which was neglected so long.

Some of the recommendations were immediately accepted by the Government. Regarding secondary education, the recommendation to introduce practical course did not attract pupils as there was no provision of degree in that course at the collegiate stage.

The Commission succeeded in the introduction of vernacular as a medium of instruction. It also started Indianisation of education by proposing employment of Indian Professors and Inspectors.

In spite of all these the Commission's proposals did not succeed chiefly on financial grounds and immaturity of the local bodies.

Q. 2. Write a note on the Hunter Commission, 1882.

Ans. In 1882, Lord Ripon appointed a Commission to enquire into the manner in which effect had been given to the principles of the Despatch of 1854 and to suggest such measures as it may think desirable in order to further carrying out the policy therein laid down. The Commission made its recommendations. While advocating the gradual withdrawal of the state from direct support and management of institutions of higher education, the Commission felt that the withdrawal could only be slow and cautious steps. A College or a Secondary School was to be handed over to the Indians only if there was a reasonable prospect that the cause of education would not suffer as a result of such transfer. Provision was to be made for ordinary and special grants to colleges. There were to be alternative courses in big colleges. Certain general principles were to be followed as regards college fees and their exemption from them. New regulations regarding scholarships were to be framed.

An attempt was to be made to prepare a model text book based upon the fundamental principles of natural religion. In all schools and colleges lectures were to be given to the students on the duties of a man and a citizen. Special measures were to be adopted for the encouragement of education among the Mohemmedans. All elementary schools were to be inspected and supervised by the educational officers of the Government. The Commission felt that primary education needed strongest encouragement by the Government. A part of the provincial revenue should be exclusively reserved for primary education. Primary education should be given by the State, District Boards and municipalities. Secondary education should be encouraged through local or private bodies. All secondary schools were made over to private management wherever that was possible. The recommendations of the Commission were accepted by the Government.

Q. 3. Discuss the main provisions of the Hunter Commission ? What were its effects ?

Ans. In 1882, Governor-General Lord Ripon appointed a Commission under the Chairmanship of W. W. Hunter, to enquire into the manner in which had been given to the principles of the Despatch of 1854 and to suggest such measures as it may think desirable in order to further carrying out of the policy therein laid down.

With the conviction that it is no less essential to the welfare of the community that provision should be made for the maintenance and development of colleges and schools of the higher class than the development of elementary education, the Hunter Commission made twenty-three recommendations on the subject of secondary education, the more important of which were as follows :

(1) In the upper classes of high schools there should be two divisions,—one leading to the entrance examination of the universities, the other of a more practical character intending to fit youths for commercial or other non-literary pursuits ;

(2) Provision should be made in respect of grant for the formation and maintenance of libraries in all high schools and for furniture and apparatus of instruction ;

(3) New rules should be framed from charging fees from students and grants of scholarships to them ;

(4) It is to be distinctly laid down that the relation of the state to secondary is different from its relation to primary education, in that the means of primary education, may be provided without regard to the existence of local co-operation, while it is ordinary expedient to provide the means of secondary education only where adequate local co-operation is forthcoming, and that therefore in all ordinary causes, secondary schools for instruction in English be hereafter established by the state preferably on the footing of the system of grants-in-aid.

The Government of India approved of nearly all the recommendations of the Hunter Commission. In a Resolution, dated the 23rd October, 1884, recorded in the Home Department, the Governor-General in Council reviewed the Report of the Hunter Commission, and laid down for future guidance of Local Governments and Administrators the mainlines of the educational policy which the Government of India intended to pursue. In expressing the approval of this Resolution, the Secretary of State for India communicated the following instructions to the Government of India : "In order to stimulate the efforts of the various authorities in the promotion of education on the lines now laid down, it would, I think, be well if your Excellency in Council would direct the preparation of General Annual Report, embracing the important features of the several provincial reports (including Bombay and Madras), transmit copies of the same to the Secretary of State, with a Resolution by the Government of India reviewing such General Report." According to these instructions the work of preparing the General Report was first entrusted to Sir Alfred Croft, Director of Public Instruction in Bengal, whose "Review of Education in India in 1886" is a valuable record containing detailed information on the subject.

CURZON'S POLICY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Q. 1. Give a critical account of Lord Curzon's educational policy in India.

Ans. Introduction : Lord Curzon became the Viceroy and Governor-General of India in 1898. His regime may be treated as a stepping stone in the history of Indian education to a new era formed by the first two decades of the 20th Century. The view, which promoted Lord Curzon to do in for a reform in the existing educational policy are discussed below :

(a) The recommendations of the Indian Education Commission primarily aimed at the expansion of education through private enterprise. The object was achieved, as will be evident from the rapid expansion of secondary and collegiate education during the last quarter of the 19th Century.

(b) As a result of the policy of 'laissez-faire' to private enterprise, most of the private institutions turned to inefficient and poorly equipped organisations. They became rather centres for preparing the students for examinations than real educational centres.

(c) The dismal position could only be improved by extending a greater state control over the education so as to attain a qualitative improvement.

(d) Unlike in the preceding period, large amounts of finance, both provincial and central, were available, which provided a greater scope for expansion of and direct control over education.

(e) A spirit of nationalism was dawning upon the Indians in general. So it was felt necessary to increase the departmental control, lest more of Indian control might affect the British interest.

With this background, Lord Curzon convened a confe-

rence of the Directors of Public Instruction at Simla in 1901. In the conference he explained the need of educational reforms and stressed on the responsibility of the State on education. Based on the resolutions of this conference, Government of India's policy on education was declared in a Memorandum in 1904.

The Memorandum dealt with certain general reforms in the educational policy and also laid down specific recommendations in the field of primary, secondary and collegiate education.

General Reforms in the Policy : The following principles were emphasised in the Memorandum :

(i) Although the policy withdrawal of the Government from the educational field was maintained, it insisted on directly maintaining some institutions at every stage to serve as models.

(ii) Complete exclusion of politics in schools was advocated.

(iii) Indians were considered less efficient than Englishmen. So all higher posts in the Education Department were to be held by the British people.

(iv) Standard of English was considered poor, and hence it was to be elevated.

(v) It realised the neglect of mother tongue, prominence of examination and a lack of ideals in education.

Besides, the Memorandum laid down elaborate directives on the different stages of education.

Primary Education : The Memorandum discussed at length the unsatisfactory position of primary education. It observed that only 1/6th of the population of children of primary age-group received opportunity of primary education. The expenditure on primary education was also abnormally low. The following directives were laid down for improvement of primary education :

(i) The curriculum should be modified to suit the

requirement of the villages and thus to provide for liberal education.

(ii) Improvement in the performance of the teachers should be ensured by increasing their training facilities and by giving better remuneration.

(iii) The policy of grants-in-aid was radically changed. The local fund was to be exclusively spent on primary education, while a major portion of the provincial grant was to be applied to it. The Director of Public Instruction should approve the education budget of the Local Boards.

(iv) The policy of 'payment on results' was abandoned.

(v) Primary Education should be imparted with vernaculars as the medium of instruction.

Secondary Education : On Secondary Education the following principles were laid down :

(i) The Memorandum observed the qualitative depreciation of the secondary schools. It, therefore, stressed on the need of a rigid state control over private institutions. It emphasised that all such institutions must be got recognised by the Education Department.

(ii) The secondary schools should also secure recognition of the university for sending student to the examination.

(iii) Mother tongue should be the medium of instruction in the middle schools where English should also be taught as a subject.

(iv) The curriculum of secondary schools should be diversified and should include useful subjects.

(v) Systematic inspection should be ensured by reinforcing the inspectorial staff.

(vi) Larger grants were sanctioned to the provincial governments for raising the standard of government school, and also for giving more grants-in-aid to private schools.

(vii) The number of training institutions for the secondary school-teachers were increased.

Q. 2. What improvements in Secondary Education in India were brought about by Lord Curzon? In what respect they differed from the policy laid down by the Indian Education Commission?

Ans. The Indian Education Commission of 1882 restricted its attention chiefly to the development of Primary Education and did not say much about the Secondary Education. Still, as a general measure it laid emphasis on giving encouragement to indigenous schools and private institutions, by providing adequate grants-in-aid. But the result has shown a quantitative increase than a qualitative improvement. The views which prompted Lord Curzon to go in for a reform in the existing educational policy on secondary education, are discussed below :

1. The object of expansion of private enterprise as envisaged by the Indian Education Commission was thus achieved. There was a rapid expansion of secondary schools during the last quarter of the nineteenth century. But the policy of allowing extensive growth to private enterprise led to produce a multitude of inefficient and poorly equipped organisations. They became rather centres for preparing the students for examination than real educational centres.

2. The dismal position could only be improved by extending a greater state control over the education so as to attain a qualitative improvement.

3. Unlike the preceding period, larger finance, both Provincial and Central, were available. This provided a greater scope for the expansion of and direct control over education.

4. A spirit of nationalism was dawning among the Indians in general. So it was felt necessary to increase the Departmental control, lest more of Indian control might affect the British interest.

On this background, Lord Curzon convened a conference of the Provincial Directors of Public Instruction at Simla in 1901. Based on the resolution of the conference, Government of India's policy on education was declared in a memorandum

in 1904. The new policy on secondary education as envisaged in the memorandum, which consisted of two aspects, viz., control and improvement, may now be analysed below :

Control of Private Enterprise : So long grants-in-aid were awarded to schools according to rules framed on the recommendation of Indian Education Commission. Institutions not wanting aid were left out. Thus, while there was control in some form over the aided schools, there was no control over the unaided schools. But Lord Curzon's policy laid down well-defined conditions for all categories of schools, aided or unaided, for ranking them as 'recognised schools'. Accordingly, Government prescribed from 1904, conditions of recognition and not of grants-in-aid. These conditions included financial stability, ability of the managing body, priority of subjects taught, care of students, suitability of teachers and so on. This was a positively new lead taken by Lord Curzon towards a general control and supervision over the secondary school by the Department.

Another form of control was adopted by the secondary schools to obtain recognition from the University in order to send their students for Matriculation Examinations. This was, however, a very formal procedure. No effective control of the University was possible for want of adequate supervisory staffs.

The recognition by the Government, however, granted certain privileges so that the institutions would get incentive for obtaining recognition. These were (i) to receive a grants-in-aid, (ii) to send up pupils for Government examination, and (iii) to receive pupils holding Government scholarship.

In order to extend the control over Pre-secondary of Middle schools that were not keen to send pupils for matriculation examination, a suitable measure was laid down. Transfer of pupils from unrecognised to recognised schools was prohibited. This was an inescapable strategy. Recognition no longer remained a 'privilege' but it became a 'condition of existence'.

Indian public opinion severely criticised this policy of

control by the Government and the University as politically motivated. In fact, this policy led to a rigid and mechanical system.

Improvement in the quality : On this aspect, the following measures were adopted :

(i) Larger funds were provide to Provincial Governments for improvement of the government schools and larger grants-in-aid were given to private schools for raising their standards.

(ii) Curriculum was deversified and included useful and practical subjects.

(iii) Mother-tongue was made the medium of instructions at the middle school stage and English was taught at this stage so as to facilitate the pupils to take instructions in English at the secondary stage.

(iv) Systematic inspection was ensured by strengthening the Inspectorate staff.

(v) The number of training institutions for teachers were increased.

These reforms were, however, useful and continued to develop in later years.

Q. 3. Why is the Indian Education Commission (1882) known as Hunter Commission ? Discuss the important recommendations of this Commission for the improvement of Secondary education in India.

Ans. The Indian Education Commission is popularly known as Hunter Commission after the name of its Chairman Sri W. W. Hunter.

The following recommendations were made by the Commission for the improvement of secondary education in India :

(1) The Government should recede from the direct management of secondary schools. These should be left to private management and be assisted by liberal grants-in-aid.

(2) The Government should, however, directly maintain one efficient school in each district to serve as a model.

(3) The fees charged in the private schools should be less than the fees charged in Government schools.

(4) Vocational courses should be provided in the school curriculum side by side with academic courses.

(5) Teachers should be trained in the method of teaching and their success in the examination should be a condition for permanent employment.

Q. 4. What were the demerits of eleven year schooling? How far these demerits are abolished under twelve years schooling? Discuss.

Ans. The main points of criticism that led to the abolition of 11 years schooling are not far to seek.

First, it has been indicated that in it diversified courses begin from Class IX. Specialisation thus begins too early in the pattern. Pupils of the age of 13 or 14 under this scheme are to decide the course they are to follow in building up their careers. But as a matter of fact it is too early for a child to decide his future course of study.

Secondly, the eleven year period of school education is an inadequate preparation for entrance to the university. The expectation that standard would improve as a result of the reorganisation has not been generally realised.

Thirdly, the three-year integrated course in the Higher Secondary classes leads to a good deal of unnecessary expansion and increase in expenditure.

Fourthly, introduction of technical, agricultural, commercial, home science and fine arts courses in the Multipurpose schools have been found useless and unnecessary as these will, in future be studied, generally speaking, in special vocational courses.

Fifthly, under the eleven year higher secondary courses a student is not given freedom as regards choice of his elective subjects. He is reluctantly compelled to take up three

elective subjects from only one group in the form of package deal.

Lastly, this course has not given proper stress on agricultural education so urgent for a country like ours. Under the above points of criticism the eleven year school system has been abandoned.

Q. 5. What was the effect of the Hunter Commission ?

Ans. Almost all the recommendations of the Hunter Commission were accepted by the Government. The Hunter Commission recommended encouragement of vernacular education, increased reliance on private enterprise and Indianisation of education by gradually withdrawing Government control through employment of more Indian teachers.

The devolution of control to local bodies and Indianisation of teaching led to enormous growth in the number of students at all levels. In the primary schools the number rose from 22 lakhs in 1882 to 32 lakhs in 1901. In secondary level the number increased from 4 lakhs in 1886 to over 6 lakhs in 1901. At the college level the number increased from over eleven thousand in 1886 to over 23 thousand in 1901.

Another notable feature of this expansion of education in India was greater participation of the Indian philanthropists. A number of dominational institutions sprang up in different parts of the country. These institutions not only imparted western knowledge but also encouraged Indian and Oriental studies.

However, there were many defects in the educational system that prevailed for 1852 to 1901. It laid too much emphasis on literary educational and technical education did not make much progress. The system produced a large number of clerks. All these clerks could not be absorbed in government departments. This swelled the number of unemployed educated youth. The system did not pay much attention to moral education. The standard of education in private institutions could not be properly maintained. The vested interests dominated the private institutions. Proper

control could not be ensured over the condition of service in private institutions and the fate of the teachers greatly deteriorated. Yet there was another defect in this educational system that there was no unity of aim in the educational system pervading in different provinces.

Q. 6. What were the changes introduced by the Universities Act of 1904 on the basis of the recommendations of Raleigh Commission ?

Ans. The Universities Act, 1904 introduced the following changes :

1. The Governing bodies of the Universities were constituted. The size of the Senate was reduced. It was to consist of minimum of 50 members and maximum of 100 members. The number of elected members (Fellows) was fixed at 20 for the Universities of Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras ; and 15 for the University of Punjab and Agra. The majority or the members of the University were, however, to be nominated by the Government. The term of the members of Senate was fixed at six years instead of for life.

2. Government's control over the universities was increased by giving it power to veto the regulations enacted by the Senate of University. It could also make additions or alterations in the regulations framed by the Senate. It could ever frame regulations on its own over and above the Senate.

3. The Powers of the Universities were enlarged. They were assigned the function of teaching post-graduate classes. They could appoint professors, lecturers etc. for the purpose of promotion of research.

4. The Syndicates of the Universities were given statutory recognition and teachers of the University were given adequate representation on them.

5. The Senates of Universities were entrusted with the responsibility of maintaining proper standard of examinations, course of studies, text books etc.

6. The Under-graduate teaching was left to the colleges. However, strict conditions were laid down for the affiliation of new colleges. The Syndicates could hold periodical

inspections of these colleges. The private colleges were required to help a proper standard of efficiency.

7. The power to define the territorial limits of the universities and affiliation of colleges to the universities was vested in the Governor-General-in-Council.

Q. 7. Write a short note on the Raleigh Commission.

Ans. In January 1902, Lord Curzon appointed a commission presided over by Raleigh to enquire into the conditions and prospects of the Universities established in British India, to consider and report upon any proposals which may have been or may be made for improving their construction and working and to recommend such measures as may tend to elevate the standard of University reaching and promote the advancement of learning. The commission recommended that the powers of the older Universities should be enlarged and all Universities be recognised as teaching bodies. The local limits of each University were to be accurately defined. The Senate, Syndicate and Faculties were to be reorganised and made more representative than before. The affiliation rules were to be framed in such a way that no institution was admitted to affiliation unless it satisfied certain standards of efficiency. There were to be properly constituted governing bodies for each college. Attention was to be paid to residence and discipline of students. The courses and methods of examination in all subjects were to be changed according to the suggestions made in the report.

Q. 8. Write a short note on the University Act of 1904.

Ans. The recommendations of the Raleigh Commission were accepted by the Government and embodied in the Universities Act of 1904. The Governing bodies of the Universities were to be reconstituted. The Senate of a University was to have not less than 50 and not more than 100 members. The number of elected fellows was fixed at 20 for Universities of Calcutta. Bombay and Madras and 15 for the other two. Statutory recognition was to be given to the Syndicates with adequate representation of University teachers on them. Conditions for affiliation to the Univer-

sity were clearly laid down and were intended to promote more study and research.

The University Act was severely criticised. The result was that Indian Universities became the most officialised universities in the world. There was a majority of Europeans who dominated the working of the universities. It was contended that the new regulations for affiliation of colleges were intended to hamper Indian private effort in the field of education. In the words of Fraser, "Educated Indians sincerely felt that the Viceroy meant to deal a blow at the university system."

But the Resolution of 1913 clarified the policy of the Government with regard to higher education. The affiliating universities were allowed to be continued as there was no alternative to them. However, new teaching and residential universities were to be established within every province. Teaching universities were to be established at Dhaka, Aligarh and Benares. New affiliating universities were to be established at Rangoon, Patna and Nagpur. Universities were started at Benares in 1916 and at Patna in 1917.

Q. 9. Write a note on the Calcutta University Commissioner or Sadler Commission.

Ans. In the time of Lord Chelmsford, the Calcutta University Commission was appointed to go into the problems of the Calcutta University. On September 14, 1917, the names of the members of the Commission were announced. Dr. M. E. Sadler, Vice-Chancellor of the Leeds University, was appointed Chairman. Ashutosh Mukherjee was appointed a member of the Commission. It is also known as the Sadler Commission. The terms of reference were very comprehensive. The Commission submitted a voluminous report in 1919 dealing practically with every problem of secondary university education. The Commission recommended that intermediate classes of the Calcutta University were to be transferred to secondary institutions and the stage of admission to the university was to be that of the existing Intermediate Examination. Secondary and Intermediate education was to be controlled by a Board of Secondary

Education and not by University. The Government of India was not to have any special relationship with the University of Calcutta and it was to be under the Government of Bengal. The duration of the Degree Course was to be 3 years after the Intermediate stage. The teaching resources of the city of Calcutta were to be organised to create a real teaching University. The project of the University of Dhaka was to be carried out as soon as possible. The mofussil colleges were to be so organised as would encourage the gradual rise of new University centres by the concentration of higher education at a few points. Special attention was to be paid to the education of woman. Problems of vocational and professional training including that of teachers, lawyers, medical men, engineers, architects and agriculturists were to be seriously taken in hand by the university and suggestions were made for that purpose. The medium of instruction for most subjects up to the high school level was to be the vernacular but for later stages it was to be English. The method of examinations required complete overhauling. The Government of India drafted a bill to enforce the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission but financial difficulties stood in the way. In 1920 the recommendations of the Commission were forwarded to the Provincial Governments. The Dhaka University and Lucknow University started in 1920. The Allahabad University was started in 1921 and the Delhi University in 1922.

Under the Government of India Act of 1919 (or Mantague—Chelmsford Reforms), the Education Department was transferred into the hands of the Indian Ministers responsible to Provincial Legislatures. However, the Government of India continued to control and guide the general policy of higher education. Under the Government Act of 1935, the entire University education was placed under the control of Provincial Governments.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL POLICY

Q. 1. Discuss the background of the national educational movement.

Ans. The influence of education on national life is admitted in all hands. It is for this reason that leaders of the anti-partition of Bengal Movement laid a good deal of stress on recasting the educational system and the subjects of study, along with the change in the political system that want to bring about. The boycott movement in Bengal exerted deep and wide influence on the student community which had virtually become the backbone of the movement. The Government fully realised the situation and tried to wean them away from it but their instruction to school and college authorities, to prevent the students from taking active part in the movement, proved futile. The spirit of nationalism struck deep root in the minds of the young students and some of the teachers themselves were directly or indirectly sympathetic to the movement. When instruction and directives failed Government took to repressive measures.

Many students were fined and many were rusticated and among the teachers many were dismissed or otherwise punished. A secret circular signed by R. W. Carlyle, the Chief Secretary, was sent to the District Magistrates and commonly known as the 'Carlyle Circular' it attracted a good deal of notoriety. It was to the following effect. "The recent participation of school and college students in political movements is contrary to discipline in educational institutions and is injurious to the students too; such participation of students of Government aided institutions will not be tolerated. If any student in your district is found taking part in picketing or participating in the Swadeshi Movement in any other manner. You should inform the heads of the institutions, if they are in receipt of Government aid, that unless they are able to restrain their students the financial help to their institutions would be stopped. Students of these institutions will be denied

scholarships in future and those of them who are getting scholarships will have the same stopped. The University would be requested to deny permission to students of these constitutions to sit for University examinations. If, however, the authorities of the institutions concerned failed to control the students in spite of their best endeavours they should send to you lists of names of students who offend against their directions and you will deal with those students as you can deem fit and proper. You should also inform the heads and teachers of schools and colleges that law and order so demanded, they would be appointed 'Special constables' and if breach of peace by students is apprehended, you should not hesitate to appoint them as such. This will have affect as students are devoted to their teachers and latter would be in a position to supply a list of disobedient are recalcitrant students."

This circular was secretly despatched on October 10, 1905, but it leaked out and gave rise to a vehement resentment and loud protests all over Bengal. Another factor added fuel to the fire and that was a letter written by Mr. Pedlar, the Director of Public Instruction, Bengal, to the Principals of some colleges on October 21, 1905. The Principals were asked to show cause why the students who had participated in the picketing in Calcutta, which led to a disturbance of the public peace, should not be punished and expelled.

The attitude of the Government disclosed by the Carlyle Circular and the latter by Mr. Pedlar not only agitated the public deeply but generated revolutionary tendencies too. In a meeting held on October 24, 1905, with Abdul Rasul as President; Bipin Chandra Pal in his speech did not stop with severely castigating the Carlyle circular, he proposed the establishment of a National Educational Institution which would be free of governmental influence. This was the precursor of the National Education Society. Another meeting was held the same day in Calcutta where about 2000 Muslims were initiated in the nationalist movement. Three days later another meeting was held in Calcutta

presided over by Rabindranath Tagore. Over 1000 students joined the meeting and took the oath that they would not take the Carlyle Circular lying down.

Mr. P. C. Lyon, Chief Secretary of the new Province of East Bengal and Assam, issued on October, 1905, a circular similar to the Carlyle Circular which further threatened to disqualify for Government service students who would take part in picketing in support of the boycott movement. With the issue of the circular, ruthless repression was let loose.

In the meantime, the inhabitants of Rangpur held a meeting on November 7, 1905, and decided to start a National School and on the following day a National School was started at Rangpur. An 'anti-circular society' was also formed to fight the 'Carlyle Circular'. The Rangpur incidents added to the enthusiasm for the establishment of a National University.

On the otherhand, the Chief Secretary Mr. P. C. Lyon addressed on November 8, 1905, two circulars to the Divisional Commissioner of Dhaka, which were aimed at the suppression of the students and teachers of East Bengal. These intensified the Government policy of repression. The first gave various directions aimed at keeping students away from the Swadeshi Movement and related to detail the steps that would be taken against students, teachers and schools concerned, for disobedience of the same. The Commissioner was asked to keep vigilance that the following prohibitory orders were obeyed. The orders were to the following effect :

- (i) 'Bande Mataram' was not to be shouted on the streets or in the public places ;
- (ii) No meeting was to be held in a public place for discussion of politics or allied matters ;
- (iii) Students must not crowd on streets for singing nationalist song or for shouting slogan like 'Bande Mataram' ; and

(iv) No discourteous gestures must be made to English ladies passing by in carriages and nothing must be done to cause them annoyances. It was further directed that the police would be entitled to enquire of the particulars of anybody guilty of discourteous conduct to an Englishman or a Muslim on the streets and refusal to give particulars would justify the culprit being taken to the police station.

The repressive measures of the Government were not accepted by the student community in silence. They raised their voice of protest against the injustice of the measures and the humiliation implicit therein with such dignity and courage that it attracted the attention of all thinking people and set an example to others. This also paved the ground for the establishment of national schools.

Q. 2. What do you know of 'anti-circular society' ?

Ans. The 'anti-circular society' was established by Sri Sachindra Prasad Basu, a student of B. A. Class, as a protest to the Carlyle Circular. The principal function of the society was at first confined to leading processions singing national songs in the streets of Calcutta and picketing of shops selling foreign goods. Gradually its sphere of work was extended and its programme of work fell into the following categories :

(i) To arrange for the education of students expelled from their schools for participating in the Swadeshi Movement ;

(ii) To propagate among the masses through processions and songs the objective of the nationalist movement and to preach the means of its success ;

(iii) To persuade the sellers of foreign goods from dealing in them and intending purchasers against purchasing them ;

(iv) To arrange for supply of indigenous goods in towns and villages for sale ; and

(v) To popularise the Swadeshi Movement through speeches in public meeting.

Q. 3. What do you know of the Dawn Society ?

Ans. The Dawn Society was established in 1902 at Calcutta by Satish Chandra Mukherjee. His object was to set before the youth of the country an ideal of physical, mental and spiritual advancement leading to an all round development of the personality. To help in the building up of character, religious and ethical principles were taught to the students of the Society's School as complementary to the general education that was imparted. A good deal of stress was given to the discussion of matters that was taught, to improve the mental faculties. The education imparted to the school had two other characteristics.

The principal object of the studies in the institution was the awakening of the nationalist spirit and a sense of patriotism. The students were initiated to a determination of the self-sacrifice for the country.

Secondly, practical training in technical studies and the improvement of indigenous industries in all possible ways was one of the objectives of the institution. A Swadeshi Bhandar (Shop-selling indigenous products only) came to be managed by the students of the society's school in 1903. The students used to collect from various places products of cottage industries and these used to be sold. The Dawn Society became an important centre of activity in the Swadeshi Movement.

Q. 4. Give an account of the movement for national education.

Ans. Dawn Society's contribution to the infusion of nationalism in education was beyond reckoning. Under the auspices of the Society a largely attended meeting was held on November 5, 1905, to inaugurate national education. It was attended by about 2000 students and addressed among others by Rabindranath Tagore, Satish Chandra Mukherjee and Hirendranath Datta. Satish Chandra Mukherjee called upon the students to come out of the Calcutta University,

which he termed as an institution of slavery to boycott its examinations.

This meeting marked the birth of the National Council of Education. Four days later (November 9, 1905) another big meeting was held in Calcutta. It was in this meeting that Subodh Chandra Mallik offered a donation of a lakh of rupees for national education and his grateful countrymen honoured him with the title 'Raja'.

On November 11, 1905, another meeting was held presided over by Sri Ashutosh Chowdhury who called upon the leaders to meet in a conference three days later and to come to a decision on the nature and pattern of national education.

Referring to the meeting he said : "I had no idea uptill now that the young students were so determined to leave the Calcutta University and to join a National Institution. They have decided to boycott the examination of the University and they want to know from us whether we shall be in a position to establish for them a National University."

The conference proposed by Sri Ashutosh Chowdhury met on November 16, 1905. It was attended by almost all the important personalities of Bengal. The conference took the following two decisions :

(i) An immediate establishment of a National Council of Education which needed to make arrangements for imparting all kinds of education in humanities, science and technical subjects ; and

(ii) Although the proposed boycott of examination was indicative of self-sacrifice by the students and was the worthy of praise as such, the interest of the country demanded that they should sit for the same. Sri Satish Chandra Mukherjee was entrusted with organising the National Education Council and it was by his untiring effort that the Council was established on August 14, 1905. The new system of education to be introduced was indicated as possessing the following characteristics :

(i) Education in all branches of the Arts, Sciences and

Technical subjects was to be imparted in Bengali, but English was to be included among the compulsory subjects for study. Necessary text books were to be written in Bengali by competent scholars ;

(ii) Along with the imparting of physical and moral education, students will be taught the views of all the religious sects. Installation of patriotism and devotion to the service of the country in the minds of the students should be a participation ; rituals should be form no part of religious education ;

(iii) Stress would be laid on the teaching of history, literature and philosophy of the land and on harmonising the Eastern and western ideals ; and

(iv) Arrangements for scientific, technical and industrial education would have to be made, keeping in view the economic needs of the country. The treasure of scientific knowledge that remains untapped in the fund of wisdom of the East, particularly in the Ayurveda and Unani systems of medicine, should be unearthed and studied.

Although the leaders were conscious of the defects of the existing educational system, they differed widely on the question of boycott of university examinations. According to one section of them, the National Council of Education should be entrusted with imparting all branches of education while another section of them was of the view that the Council should aim at providing for technical education only as complementary to the existing pattern. Two distinct parties among the leaders holding the two divergent views came to be formed on the line of the well-known division of political thought and action of the time with the nomenclature of the Extremists and the Moderates. In the result two distinct Societies, the National Council of Education (N. C. E.) and the Society for the promotion of Technical Education (S. P. T. E.) came to be registered on the same day (June 1, 1906). The first society (N. C. E.) established the 'Bengal National College and School' on August 14,

1905 and the latter (S. P. T. E.,) established the 'Bengal Technical Institute' on July 25, 1905. In spite of different of views, the two parties bore no grudge or malice against each other and this is evident from the fact that Sri Rashbehari Ghosh was President of both of them. In 1910 the institutions merged; the Departments of the Arts and the Pure Sciences came to be known as the 'Bengal National College' while the departments of the Applied Sciences and technical education came to be known as the 'Bengal Technical Institute'. After independence both of them were included in the faculties of the Jadavpur University.

Both institutions made considerable progress before the merger in 1910. Arabinda Ghosh (Sri Aravind) was a professor of the Baroda College and was getting as such a salary of Rs. 750/- a month. He left the job and joined the National College as Principal on a salary of Rs. 75/- which was later increased to Rs. 100/- a month. This was a great sacrifice. Later in 1907 when he got himself involved in politics and become busy with editing the English daily 'Bande Mataram', he severed his connection with the college and was succeeded by Satish Chandra Mukherjee who, however, had to resign his post in 1908 due to ill-health.

But the college lost its popularity after 1910 for various reasons. When the Swadeshi movement turned into a freedom movement political freedom became the desideratum and the principal objective and all efforts and energy were diverted to that end. Then, again, for the middle-class Bengalees service was the ultimate goal of higher education, and education in the National College was an insurmountable hinderance to it. The result was that not only the National College but the national schools, too, which had been established all over the country gradually closed down. As, however, there was no arrangement for technical education in the country, the Technical Institute progressed in spite of the above reasons as education and training there afforded ample scope for an independent earning in trade even if employment was unavoidable. With the decline of the Swadeshi Movement, the number

of students expelled from schools and colleges diminished and as such the demand for national schools which had come into being mainly to accommodate those students also died down.

CHAPTER 16

MUDALIAR COMMISSION—1952-53

Q. 1. Why it was imperative for the Government to appoint the Mudaliar Commission? What its terms of reference?

Ans. The Central Advisory Board of Education recommended, in January 1948, the appointment of a commission to study the prevailing system of education (secondary) in the country and suggested measures for its reorganisation and improvement. The Report of the Radhakrishnan Commission also made it quite clear that a reorganisation of the Secondary Education was a precondition for the improvement and extension of University Education. The Commission suggested the separation of the Intermediate course from the Universities and its merging with the secondary course so as to make a total of twelve-year Higher Secondary Course. The problem of secondary education was not dealt at length as it was out of purview of the Commission.

The problem of secondary education has not been dealt with in a comprehensive manner so long. The Hunter Commission's report related to a period when circumstances were entirely different. In 1917-19 the Saddler Commission was appointed to examine the affairs of the Calcutta University. Its recommendations on the secondary education were not based on an all-India basis. Hence, it was imperative for the Government to take up the question of secondary education at an all-India level.

With the independence of the country the circumstances

had further changed. Influx of population created increased demand for education, and the education requirement including its ideals and objectives had also changed. So it was expedient to examine the question of secondary education thoroughly.

On the advice of the Central Advisory Board of Education, the Government of India, therefore, appointed the Secondary Education Commission under the chairmanship of Dr. A. L. Mudaliar in 1952. This Commission is popularly known as the Mudaliar Commission. The Government desired to change over from the prevailing system of secondary education which is unilateral and predominantly academic in nature to a new system which will enter to the secondary stage for different aptitudes and interests.

Terms of reference placed before the Commission were as follows :

- (a) The Commission was asked to enquire into and report on the present position of the Secondary Education in all its aspects.
- (b) The Commission was also required to suggest measures for its reorganisation, improvement and expansion with particular reference to :
 - (i) The aims, organisation and content of Secondary Education.
 - (ii) Its relationship to Primary, Basic and Higher Education.
 - (iii) The inter-relation of secondary schools of different types, and
 - (iv) Other allied problems.

So that a sound and reasonably uniform system of secondary education suited to our needs and resources may be provided for the whole country.

A question may arise as to the priority and necessity of appointing the Commission on an all-India basis, when education has been regarded in the Constitution as a state-responsibility. The answer is not far to seek. *First*, although

education has been earmarked as a state-subject, the Central Government has an overall responsibility for maintaining and improving the general standard of education, so that all the states can march in harmony towards the goal. *Secondly*, secondary education has a profound impact on the life of the country as a whole. Its aim was to train the young people to be good citizens, capable of actively participating in the programme of national development of the country. Hence, there should be a certain amount of uniformity in the type of education to be given to them at the secondary stage. *Thirdly*, it is the function of the Central Government to see that a proper standard is maintained in the higher education of the country. But such a standard can hardly be maintained unless the efficiency-level at the secondary stage is carefully maintained and raised to the desired extent. Thus, the appointment of a Secondary Education Commission on an all-India basis was appropriate and desirable.

Q. 2. Discuss the main features of the Report of the Mudaliar Commission of 1952-53.

Ans. The Commission, from the outset, made their best efforts to make the general orientation of policy quite clear so that refashioning of the educational pattern might proceed on a right track. The Commission's recommendations were divided into short-term and long-term measures.

The Commission thoroughly discussed the educational needs of democratic India, the role of education in training the citizens of a developing democracy.

The Report of the Commission was elaborate and lengthy. A big volume can be written on the recommendations of this Commission. So the salient features of the recommendations in their principal aspects are discussed here.

The Commission observed that the principle behind secondary education is that it should be a complete unit by itself and not merely a preparatory stage, so that after completion of the course the student should be in a position to enter into the responsibilities of life and take up some useful vocation. The period of secondary education covers the age-group of about 11 to 17 years. The Commission recommended the

following organisational structure for secondary education :—

(a) The Commission recommended to reduce the total duration of Secondary Course for 12 years to 11 years, of this 7-8 years will constitute the Elementary Course, 4-3 years for the Secondary Course, after which comes the 3-year Degree Course. It was felt by the Commission that the students attaining the age of 17 at the end of the Secondary Course will be fit to receive higher education, provided certain modifications are done in the curriculum and the standard of teaching is improved.

(b) For those who will complete the 10 year School Course provision was made for a one-year Pre-University Course in order to enable them to enter the Degree Course.

(c) Special facilities were provided for agricultural education and other vocational and technical education at the secondary stage. For this purpose, the establishment of Multipurpose Schools was recommended. A single-track education was the inherent defect in the Secondary Education during the British period. The Commission wanted to remove this defect and provide diversified course for students according to their aptitudes. The Multipurpose Schools should provide courses in Agriculture, Commerce, Technology, Fine Arts and Home Science. The subject of the Multipurpose Schools is to prepare the students for different walks of life and thus reduce the pressure upon the Universities.

(d) The Commission also recommended to set up Central Technical Institutions and Technical Schools in order to promote vocational and technical education. The Commission suggested that the All Indian Council for Technical Education should advise on the details of the technical courses at the secondary stage.

(e) The Commission also recommended to improve the position, of the Public Schools, setting up of 'Residential Day Schools' and Schools for the handicapped.

The Commission made the following recommendations as regards curriculum of the Secondary Schools.

(i) Three languages—Vernacular, Federal language (Hindi) and English—and another Indian language in case the mother-tongue is Hindi.

(ii) Social Studies, General Science and Mathematics.

(iii) One craft to be selected from the prescribed group of crafts.

(iv) Three subject on any of the seven groups ; Humanities, Science, Technical, Commerce, Agriculture, Fine Arts and Home Science. The object of this diversified course is to avoid a set pattern of book-knowledge and to recognise and encourage the individual differences among the students.

The Commission suggested important reforms in the method of teaching. It stressed on a 'dynamic method of teaching.' The essential features of this method are given below :

(i) Teaching should not merely aim at efficiently imparting knowledge but at creating a genuine attachment to work and to do it honestly and thoroughly.

(ii) Principles of 'Activity Method' and 'Project Method' should be applied as far as possible. Experiment and demonstration should be freely conducted. Students should learn to work in groups.

(iii) Special stress should be given to clear thinking and clean expression both in speech and in writing. The students should be made to practise the application of the knowledge acquired in the class through 'Expression Works' in various forms.

(iv) Method of acquiring knowledge through personal efforts should be given emphasis, instead of trying to impart a volume of knowledge.

(v) Proper use of a well-equipped school library under trained librarians should be encouraged.

(vi) Extra-curricular activities, like Boy-Scout, Girl-Guide, N.C.C., educational tour etc., should form an important part of the school education.

The Commission stressed on the need of improving the

standard of teaching, and of the personal in respect of their service conditions and efficiency. The recommendations in this respect were as follows :

(i) A uniform procedure should be maintained as far as possible, in the selection of teachers.

(ii) Normally, a teacher should remain on probation for one year.

(iii) Teachers with Higher Secondary qualification should receive two years' training, and should be given the same grade of pay as the graduate teachers. The teachers should be given benefit of the triple-benefit scheme, viz., Pension-cum-Provident Fund-cum-Insurance. They should be provided with quarters.

(iv) Teachers with Higher Secondary qualification should receive two years' training while the graduate teachers should have one year's training. Training should include one or more extra-curricular activities, and refresher courses. During training the teachers should receive stipends from the States and no fees should be charged. Special part-time training courses should be arranged for the women teachers.

The Commission considered the subjective test adopted in the traditional form of examination as a persisting evil in the educational system. The system is most unreliable. Being mechanical and stereotyped in nature, it can hardly make a true evaluation of the student's possession of knowledge. Modern methods of evaluation were suggested by the Commission so that a realistic assessment of the pupil's progress throughout his career can be made. The following were the recommendations of the Commission in this regard :

(a) The subjective and essay-type questions should be replaced by objective tests.

(b) The number of external examinations should be reduced. There should be only one public examination at the end of the school career.

(c) A systematic school record should be maintained for

each student to show the work down by him throughout his school term. Such a cumulative record will give a complete picture of the pupil's career.

(d) In the final assessment, the school record and the result of internal tests should be given due weight.

(f) The system of compartmental examination should be introduced.

Administration and Finance :

Management : The Commission recommended that all types of schools should be managed by a registered Managing Board, with the Headmaster as an ex-officio member. The Managing Board will ensure efficient running of the school and maintenance of proper standard, frame clear rules of service, appoint qualified staff in accordance with the rules of the Department and satisfy the Department that necessary equipments and accommodation have been ensured. It will, however, not interfere with the internal administration of the school. The overall control and management of the Secondary Education will rest with the Director of Education as the Chairman.

Recognition : Recognition to a new school shall be given only on being satisfied that the conditions with regard to accommodation, equipments, teaching staff, standard of teaching as prescribed, have been fulfilled.

Working hours : The annual session would consist of a minimum of 200 days with a minimum of 35 periods of about 45 minutes each in a week. The holidays and school hours may be fixed according to the occupational conditions and climatic variations of the locality.

Finance : The Commission realised that the programme would entail a large finance. Hence it suggested certain measures, e.g., levy of Industrial Education Cess, apportionment of revenues from the nationalised industries like railways, and making any contribution towards secondary education, income-tax free etc. Above all the Commission suggested that the Centre should assume certain financial responsibilities in the matter of Secondary Education.

The Government of India has accepted the recommendations and all the State Governments have upgraded many high schools into the higher secondary pattern. But the result has not been satisfactory. At the end of the 2nd Plan period only 3000 schools out of about 18000 have been so upgraded. The progress has further retarded during the 3rd Plan period. The position with regard to the multipurpose schools is still gloomy. During the same period, only 2.0 schools have been multipurpose.

The reasons for this slow progress are many. They are :

(a) The chief reasons of the unsatisfactory progress are the financial limitations. The Higher Secondary and Multipurpose Schools are very costly affairs. The present economic conditions of the country can hardly meet the cost of upgrading the schools.

(b) Even then, such upgrading will tend to create educated unemployment and a great pressure on the degree colleges. The Commission's hope that only 25% of the Higher Secondary passed students would go in for higher education has failed. Most of the students are crowding for higher education.

(c) The next important reason is the feasibility of the curricula and the span of time allotted. On the one hand, the study of three subjects and also the study of the previous intermediate courses within the reduced period is considered too heavy a burden on the students. On the other hand, the selection of the diversified subjects at an age of 13-14 years, i e., in Class VIII, becomes extremely mechanical. The reduction of the 12 year course, as recommended by Radhakrishnan Commission had then been a matter of growing controversy.

(d) Next comes the selection and training of teachers. Although enrolment, training and service conditions of the teachers, have improved to some extent, it is well nigh impossible to get the required number of qualified teachers required for the programme.

(e) The Pre-University Course for the school-leavers has

already proved a failure, chiefly in view of the burden of syllabus and the short margin of time available.

Criticism : The recommendations of the Mudaliar Commission had failed to bring about the desired results in the field of Secondary Education. The Education Commission of 1964, popularly known as Kothari Commission rejected the pattern of secondary education as recommended by the Mudaliar Commission.

In spite of its failings, the recommendations have been able to bring about certain important ideas :

Board of Secondary Education was set up in all but three States for the management and control of the Higher Secondary Examinations.

An All India Council of Secondary Education was set up in 1955 and it has been doing useful work in the furtherance of improvement of Secondary Education.

The Council and Directorate of Extension Programme for Secondary Education have been doing useful works in giving in-service training to secondary teachers.

Vocational Guidance Bureaus have been set up at the Centre and in many provinces.

Q. 3. Write a note on the Sergeant scheme of education.

Ans. The scheme was prepared by Sri John Sergeant who was the Educational Adviser to the Government of India. It sought to introduce universal free and compulsory education for boys and girls between ages of 6 and 14. The scheme was estimated to cost Rs. 200 crores a year. The basic education was to consist of two stages viz., the junior stage and the senior stage. After the primary stage all boys and girls were not to be allowed to go to high schools. Only those were to be allowed who were expected to profit from higher education. One out of every five was expected to join a high school. Schools were to be maintained out of public funds as far as possible. Restrictions were to be put on the admission of the students into colleges. Intermediate colleges were to be joined with the schools. College education was to last for three years.

Q. 4. Write a short note on the Radhakrishnan Commission, 1949.

Ans. In 1948 the Government of free India appointed a University Commission under the Chairmanship of Sir Radhakrishnan. Its terms of reference were comprehensive. The committee submitted a detailed report in 1949. The Commission recommended the establishment of rural universities with Santiniketan and Jamia Miia as their model. It criticised the allocation of inadequate funds for education. Money for education was not to be less than 5 percent of the total revenue. The number of scholarships and stipends was to be increased to help the poor. The colleges were not to be allowed to admit more than 1000 students. Where the mother tongue was not the same as the federal language, the federal language was to be the medium of instruction. If the mother tongue and the federal language was identical, the students were required to take any other Indian, classical or modern language. There was to be no attempt at the hasty replacement of English as a medium of instruction for academic standards. The Commission did not prescribe any time limit. There were to be no denominational or sectarian or religious considerations. Co-education was to be adopted in the secondary stage and then in the college stage. A considerable stress was put on improving the standards of the teaching profession. There were to be four classes of teachers and promotion from one to another was to be solely on the basis of merit.

Q. 5. Write a short note on the University Grant Commission.

Ans. In 1956, the Indian Parliament passed the University Grants Commission Act. It provided for the appointment of a University Grants Commission by the Central Government. The nine members of the Commission were to be appointed by the Central Government. Every member was to hold office for a period of six years. The Chairman of the Commission was to be appointed by the Central Government and his job was to be a whole-time job carrying a salary. The Commission was to meet at different places. It

is the general duty of the Commission to take all such steps as it may think fit for the promotion and co-ordination of University education, for the determination and maintenance of standards of teaching, examination and research in Universities. The Commission can enquire into the financial needs of the University, allocate and disburse grants to University, recommend to any University the measures necessary for the improvement of University education and advise the University upon the action to be taken for the purpose of implementing such recommendations, advise the Central Government or any State Government on the allocation of grants of any grants to Universities for any general or specified purpose. The Commission has to collect information on all matters relating to University education in India and other countries as it thinks fit and to make the same available to any University, require a University to furnish it with such information as may be needed relating to the financial position of the University and perform such other functions which are considered necessary by the Commission for advancing the cause of higher education in India. In order to find out the financial needs of a University and its teaching, examination and research standards, the Commission can after consultation with the University, cause an inspection of any Department or Departments to be made. If a University does not comply with the recommendations of the Commission, the latter can withhold its grants to the University. The University Grants Commission has done really good job to further the cause of University education in the country.

CHAPTER 17

KOTHARI COMMISSION WITH SPECIFIC REFERENCE TO SECONDARY EDUCATION

Q. 1. Write briefly the system of education recommended by Education Commission, 1964 or the Kothari Commission.

Ans. The Education Commission was appointed by the Government of India in 1964 to advise the Government on a national plan of education, and on the general principles and policies for the development of education in India all aspects. The Commission was headed by Dr. D. S. Kothari, the Chairman of the University Grants Commission and the Education Commission 1966 has been aptly named Kothari Commission. The Commission submitted its report in 1966. The report is a voluminous one and contained a detailed analysis of all the aspects of education at various stages. The recommendations of the Commission in respect of Secondary Education are discussed below :

1. **Pattern :** The whole Educational structure was divided into the following stages :

- (a) One to three years for pre-school education.
- (b) Ten years of general school education, sub-divided into—

- (i) 4-years of Lower Primary Education
- (ii) 3-years of Higher Primary Education
- (iii) 2-years of Lower Secondary Education
- (c) 2-years of Higher Secondary Education
- (d) 3-years Degree Course.

2. There should be two types of secondary schools e. g., high schools providing a ten-years course and higher secondary schools providing a twelve-year course. Conversion of

high schools to higher secondary pattern should be effected. Only 25% of the high schools should be so upgraded, preference being given to the more efficient schools.

3. Diversification of the stream of education from class IX should not be done. Specialisation should start from class XI. For this purpose, a new higher secondary course providing specialised studies should be instituted for classes XI and XII, as a self-contained unit.

4. The Pre-University Course should be ultimately abandoned by 1985. In the meantime it should be transferred from the University or its affiliated colleges to the schools.

5. Promotion from one class to another upto class X shall be given on the basis of internal examinations. There will be no public examination until at the end of class X.

6. Curriculum :

Lower Primary Stage : (i) One language—the mother tongue or the regional language, (ii) Mathematics—elementary arithmetic and measures, (iii) Study of environment (natural) science and geography ; (iv) Creative activities ; Work experience and Social Service ; (vi) Health Education.

Higher Primary Stage : (i) Two languages Mother tongue and Hindi or English, (ii) Mathematics, (iii) General Science, (iv) Social studies (History, Geography and Civics) (v) Art, (vi) Work experience and Social Service, (vii) Physical Education, (viii) Moral and Spiritual Education.

Lower Secondary Stage : (i) The languages—Mother tongue State Language, and a foreign or modern Indian Language, (ii) Mathematics, (iii) General Science, (iv) History, Geography and Civics, (v) Art, (vi) Work-experience and Social Service, (vii) Physical Education, (viii) Moral and Spiritual Education.

Higher Secondary Stage : (i) Any two languages—Modern Indian, classical or foreign ; (ii) Any three from the following subjects—An additional language, History, Geography, Logic, Economics, Sociology, Psychology, Art, Phy-

sics, Chemistry, Mathematics, Biology, Geology, Home Science, (iii) Work-experience and Social Service, (iv) Physical education, (v) Art or Craft, (vi) Moral and Spiritual Education.

It is necessary to add some explanatory notes on certain subjects. Work experience and Social Service mean some form of productive work and such other works that would benefit the society as a whole. Work-experience may be gained through any craft-work that is required under life situation. Social Services may be introduced in the school campus or outside through a community programme such as — cleaning the school campus, preparing gardens, white-washing the walls, clearing of roadside jungles or water hyacinth etc.

The Commission is, however, of opinion that the school should be given the freedom to experiment with new curricula suited to regional or local needs.

Teachers :

(1) The Commission stressed the need of raising the economic and professional status of the teachers. For this, the following pay-scales have been recommended.

Trained Matriculates	Rs. 150—250
Trained Graduates	Rs. 200—400
Post Graduates	Rs. 300—600
Principals of Secondary Schools	Rs. 300—600
Senior scale for the above	Rs. 700—1100.

(2) The education of teachers should be brought under the main stream academic life of the universities.

(3) The quality of teachers' training should be improved by organising context courses, introducing integrated courses of general and professional studies through research.

(4) The quality of training should be improved by engaging qualified and efficient trainers and by adopting better methods and techniques.

(5) The school teachers should be allowed to undergo in-

service training. There should be no tuition fees and there should be provision for stipends.

Programme of expansion—Common School system : The Commission stressed on a consented programme of expansion of schools. In this connection, it recommended that a common school system separate the country within 20 years and that all schools except the unrecognised schools and independent schools come under the purview of common school system within a radius of 5 to 10 miles in rural areas. There should be at least one secondary school, 5 higher primary schools and 28 lower primary schools. This will constitute 'school-complex'. The system has very good potential for management, guidance and planning. New aids like library projector etc., may be made available to the surrounding schools by turn.

The common school system shall provide equality of access to all students. It will also maintain such a standard that average percents will not feel the need of sending their children to an unrecognised and independent school which would remain outside the common school system.

Policy of enrolment : The Commission emphasised on a target of providing general education of seven years to every child on a compulsory basis, within the next twenty years. No target has however, been fixed with regard to secondary education, which is to be provided to as many students as possible.

The Commission recommended the policy of enrolment to the Secondary education to be based on the demand for higher education, needs for manpower and the employment potential in the society. The Commission's hope in this context is that "we should move in the direction of giving every graduate an offer of employment along with his degree and diploma."

Administration and finance : The state having assured the responsibility in educational matters, the role of private enterprise has been considered by the Commission as limited and minor. The local authorities shall administer the

education in the schools provided they satisfy the conditions—good administration and promoting the cause of education. Failing this, the privilege of administration should be withdrawn. The Government of India should issue a statement announcing the national policy on education by which the States will be guided. District School Boards should undertake the management of school education and District Education Officer will look to their supervision. A State Board of School Education should be formed to replace the Board of Secondary Education. A National Board of School Education should be set up at the Centre to advise the Government of India on all matter relating to school education.

The financial requirement of the entire educational project has been estimated by the Commission at Rs. 12 per capita at the moment, which would rise to Rs. 54 in 1985-86, taking the present price index. The Commission recommended apportionment of the available resources between school education and higher education at the ratio 2 : 1. It did not show any specific sources but suggested to supplement the State fund by raising contribution from local communities, local bodies and voluntary reorganisation. It also suggested that the Centre should extend more financial assistance by expanding the centrally sponsored sectors.

Examination and evaluation: The Commission's recommendations in evaluation of students' performance is of a revolutionary nature. Like the Mudaliar Commission it has given emphasis on objective tests, maintenance of school records and reduction in the number of external and public examinations. The most important feature is, however, that the final certificate of assessment issued by the Board shall only indicate the degree or grade of performance without any comment as to the student having passed or failed. The student is permitted to appear again if he so desires to improve his grade. The school will also issue a cumulative record card to the student, to show his performance in the school.

The important features of this Commission's report in

respect of secondary education have been enumerated. The report has a unique importance, being the first report covering all branches of education, emanating after the Sargent's Report in 1941, which did not ultimately materialise due to war conditions.

The most salient feature of the Report in respect of secondary education is that it has totally rejected the 11-year higher secondary course which has all along been a subject of strong controversy since its implementation on the report of the Mudaliar Commission. It is further interesting to note that the Commission has almost reverted to the old pattern of two-year Intermediate course after a ten-year school course, as recommended earlier by the Sadler Commission in 1917. The only difference is that here the Higher Secondary Course has to be administered in the school as a self-completed unit instead of a separate Intermediate College. The Commission's decision to convert only 25% of the schools to Higher Secondary schools has been appropriate.

Regarding other recommendations, i.e., those regarding the teachers' status and emoluments, teacher's training, extra-mural activities of the students—These were recommended by all Commissions in the past.

The recommendations on the system of evaluation seems to be a very daring step in the circumstances when the entire educational system of the country is examination based. A section of people express doubt on the validity of the system. But on a closer consideration the system is found possess qualities which may remove the vice of the traditional examination system. In this system there will be disappointment of failures. The student will always get his chance to improve his standard in the particular subject. The employees will also get a good chance of judging the efficiency of the student. Instances are not rare in the present days, where a candidate, taken in for employment on the basis of the Board or University certificate, has been found utterly inefficient.

The report of the Commission was published in 1966. But no move has yet been taken at Government level to

implement the recommendations. It is expected that if the recommendations of the Commission are implemented, it will certainly improve the quality and quantity of Secondary Education in India.

CHAPTER 18

PROBLEMS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION AND REMEDIAL MEASURES

Q. 1. What are the various problems of Secondary Education in India? Should Secondary Education be made compulsory? Give reasons for your answer.

Ans. A retrospect to the history of Secondary education in India shows that the sole object of Secondary education during the British period was to prepare the students for entering the university for higher education and to teach them English. But the object of Secondary Education is two-fold. *First*, it prepares the students for a vocation and *secondly*, it makes them fit to receive higher education. Secondary education serves a very important link between the primary and higher education. The whole educational structure depends on the success of secondary education. This can be realised from the fact that the primary school teachers and the students going in for higher education, are both the products of secondary education. So the problems of secondary education can well be regarded as those of India's national education system. But unfortunately secondary education was not given the amount of importance due until recently.

Following the recommendations of the Mudaliar Commission, a system of diversified course in secondary education has been followed all over the country. Under this system a course of general education for eight years (including primary course) is followed by a diversified course of there

years with different groups of subjects according to aptitude and interest of the students. A few general subjects also continue up to the tenth year. These are called 'core subjects'. The diversified curriculum also includes a number of vocational subjects like 'Technical subjects', 'Agriculture', 'Commerce', 'Fine Arts', and 'Home Science' in addition to the groups 'Humanities' and 'Science'. This is no doubt a scientific approach. This system either prepares the student for a vocation or paves the way to his higher education according to his choice. But this has not proved as successful as was deemed to have. The reasons are not very far to seek. The present system of secondary education, based on the recommendations of the Mudaliar Commission has led to the following problems :

High Cost : The running of a Higher Secondary or Multipurpose School entails a heavy cost, 90% of the cost is expected to be covered by the tuition fees collected from the students. It is, therefore, very difficult to meet the higher running cost consisting of equipments, furniture, teaching materials, laboratory equipment, salary of teachers etc. The tuition fees have, therefore, to be made higher and are beyond the reach of the average and poor families. Moreover, there is a tendency to open as many number of higher secondary schools and convert as many high schools into the Higher Secondary pattern as possible. But in fact, such an expansion has not been possible due to such obvious reason. Most of the schools so converted are ill-equipped and staffed with insufficient teachers. The result is that most of the schools are continuing in a state of drudgery, only to maintain a show of Higher Secondary pattern. The education received by students in those schools is lifeless, dull and ineffective. In other schools with better conditions but higher tuition fees, the students belonging to the affluent families get scope in preference to poor but meritorious students and the result is disastrous.

Although the secondary education now provides for a diversified course, it is considered too heavy a burden on the average student. Moreover, the diversification starts after

the stage of class VII, when a student is 13 or 14 years of age on average. He has to select his course at this stage. It is a fact established by experiment that aptitude and interest do not quite develop at this stage. It is, too early for the students to exercise choice of subjects, on which depends his entire career. He has mostly to depend on the judgment of teachers or the guardians. This is a very crucial problem and has been a matter of strong controversy. Its effect is manifested in the large proportions of failure in the Higher Secondary Education. The knowledge acquired becomes perfunctory, which is again manifested by the sad performance of the passed students in the other fields. The problem has been realised of late and Government have appointed the Education Commission in 1944, which has given its recommendation in 1946. The Commission has dealt with the problem of excess load of curriculum on the tender brains and has evolved system of two-year diversified course after ten-year general course. But the recommendations are yet to see the light.

It is also one of the greatest problems to secure the required number of efficient and skilled teachers for secondary education. More provisions of good text books can hardly be effective, for the students may at best cram and reproduce. But unless good teachers are available the knowledge acquired by the students is of little practical value. So highly qualified teachers trained in the modern and scientific methods of training are essential pre-requisite to a successful secondary education. Without such qualification, teachers cannot command love and respect from the students, which serve as the key to a successful teaching. The poor status and emoluments of the teachers compel them to work extra hours to supplement their earnings. This has a demoralising effect. The poor teacher, tired of the extra work, can hardly be expected to do justice to his duty at schools. This problem has, however, been realised and much attention is now being paid to raise their pay scales and provide other amenities to them. But the evil having once set its root, is hard to exterminate. The growing economic instability

has led all sections of people to a ceaseless pursuit of money order to raise his income. The duty of vocation has been forgotten. Coaching outside school hours has become an essential feature and a student is now not expected to learn anything unless he takes such additional coaching. This is beyond the capacity of an average students. As a result, the educational market has been flooded with endless series of 'guides', 'notes', 'help book', 'suggestion' etc. written by people of known and unknown repute in the field of education, on a purely commercial basis.

Although the traditional schools are being replaced by Higher Secondary and Multipurpose Schools with different streams of vocation like Humanities, Science, Agriculture, Commerce, Technical subjects, Fine Arts and Home Science, the number of the schools providing these streams are inadequate. Among the existing number of schools, 6% provide Humanities, 25% science and 10% the other streams. The number was increasing at first with an enthusiasm. But soon the defects of the existing curriculum and of the eleven-year course were realised and further increase has been retarded. Hence, the secondary students are not getting ample scope for selecting his vocational line. The provision of 'Pre-University' course for the high school students coming out of the previous 10 year course is a still worse feature. The time at disposal is too short in comparison with the heavy syllabus of the related streams. All these problems have, however, been considered in the report of the Education Commission of 1966. But the implementation thereof is still awaited.

Another important problem that has frustrated the object of secondary education, is unemployment. In the plan for secondary education recommended by the Mudaliar Commission, 75% of the students coming out successfully were expected to take up vocation directly, leaving the more meritorious and able students to go in for higher studies. But this hope has given way. Due to the increasing unemployment, higher qualified people are competing for ordinary vocations, the Higher Secondary passed students, thus failing

to secure vocation are crowding for higher education in colleges. The urge for qualifying has tremendously increased. As a result, problems have developed in the fields of college and university education.

Should Secondary Education be compulsory?—In a democratic country, the value of liberal education cannot be denied. Democracy is what the citizen make it. At the same time democracy depends on how it makes the citizens with the independence of the country, the garb presented to India by the British with a designed imperialistic motive is being gradually torn out. A question may apt to arise now, as to if the secondary education should be compulsory.

The question is not easy to answer. Strong controversies exist in the matter. One school of thought feels that compulsory secondary education is a primary need of the country. Others consider it too much to think of at the moment, when primary education is yet to be made compulsory. The question is, therefore, very tough and needs careful study on several issues connected with it.

An ideal democratic country cannot deny the advantage of good education to some section of people. Such a democratic government should create equal opportunities for all. *Secondly*, the democratic efficiency of a country cannot be raised unless the people are educated upto a reasonable standard. In many highly developed country secondary education is compulsory. *Thirdly*, secondary education moulds the adolescent boys' and girls' mental equipments. It stimulates the drives and aptitudes that will enable the children to take active part in a complex social order. Thus, the purpose of secondary education is great, and its compulsory introduction in the country seems most logical. It is also an impracticable attempt to highlight the demerits of secondary education, for, a true education cannot be harmful.

It is, therefore, to be considered if compulsory secondary education is a feasible proposition under the existing condition of the country. The existing system of education is not very encouraging. The right to free and compulsory educa-

tion upto the age of 14 has been guaranteed in the Constitution. But it is still a target to be reached. Even primary education could not yet be made compulsory. Under the circumstances, it is too high an expectation to make secondary education compulsory. *Secondly*, the existing problems of secondary education are enormous and centre round a chief factor—the problem of finance. With the existing financial resources, not a single problem of Secondary Education viz., accommodation, equipments, teaching staff etc., can be radically solved. *Thirdly*, the demand for compulsory secondary education is incongruous with the existing social circumstances of the country. A large proportion of the population has to earn their bread by direct manual labour—either in agriculture or in industry. The introduction of compulsory secondary education will need a far more intensive development in industry and mechanised agriculture. This is not possible at the moment. A large section of the people is still dependent on land, for there is dearth of vocation.

It may be concluded that time is not yet mature for implementing the proposal for compulsory secondary education. When the country's financial resources will be strengthened, industrial developments will spread, and the field of vocation extended considerably, the problem of compulsory education will be resolved easily and successfully. Otherwise, introduction of compulsory secondary education at this stage will only make matters more complicated by creating problems of educated unemployment.

Q. 2. Discuss whether the conversion of the high schools into Higher Secondary or Multipurpose Schools will solve the Problem of Secondary Education in India.

Ans. The Higher Secondary Course recommended by the Mudaliar Commission (1953) included the following subjects in the curriculum :

(A) A common core of the following subjects :

(i) *Three languages* : mother tongue, Hindi and English.

(ii) Social Studies, General Science and Mathematics.

(iii) One craft.

(B) Any one of the seven groups of subjects viz., Humanities, Science, Technical Science, Commerce, Agriculture, Fine Arts and Home Science.

The primary object of secondary education as had been in vogue from the British period was to prepare pupils for entering the University through Matriculation Examination, and to teach them English. Secondary education was too much academic in character. It did not take into consideration the aptitude and interest of the pupils. Multipurpose school is a form of Higher Secondary School, which strives to remove the above mentioned defects. It provides the study of the common subjects as mentioned above and also of the terminal courses on the five streams—technical, commerce, agriculture, fine arts and home science. These courses enable the students to make their own choice according to their taste and interest and to prepare themselves for the future career. This is in short the idea of multi-purpose school.

The question as to the conversion of high schools into Higher Secondary and Multipurpose Schools will solve the problems of Secondary Education in the country, is a tough one, and has to be considered carefully. To arrive at an answer the defects of the existing system and the requirement of the country have to be considered.

Defects of the existing system: The report of the Mudaliar Commission points out the following defects of the existing system :

1. The education given 'is isolated from life' and it 'does not give the students insight into the everyday world in which they are living'. As a result, they feel themselves incongruous to the community when they come out.

2. The instruction is too much academic and narrow. It fails to develop the entire personality of the pupil. The games and crafts recently introduced, do not, however, form an integral part of the curriculum. Thus, the education is incomplete.

3. Too much attention was given to English, which made most of the pupils handicapped. No attention was paid, on the other hand, to the subjects of social and psychological value.

4. The method of teaching was stereotyped. It could hardly make any impression on the pupils. It could not induce the students to develop initiative in thought or action.

5. The large size of a class has reduced personal contact between the teacher and the students. Moreover, socio-economic condition of the teachers has brought in them a sense of frustration, resulting in loss of efficiency.

6. Last, but not the least the demon of the traditional type of subjective examination is proved to be an anathema to the whole educational set up. It has ruined the teacher's initiative, led to a lifeless method of teaching, and made the curriculum stereotyped. The students, will-nilly being dragged towards the goal of examination, which has become the be-all and end-all of education.

Aims and objectives—In the background of such a dismal state, it is necessary to decide on the aims and objectives of secondary education keeping an eye to the requirement of the country. In this respect, the ideas, expounded by the Mudaliar Commission may be followed. The 'requirement of the country may be viewed from three different stand-points.

First, India on attaining independence, has decided to continue as a secular democratic republic. Her citizen must therefore acquire such qualities, habits and attitudes as will enable them to become worthy of a democratic citizenship and to counteract all evils that tend to develop a narrow, antinational outlook.

Secondly, the rich potential resources which India possesses, are to be developed through a concerted development programme. This will require a thorough training of the people in technology, agriculture, commerce etc. so as to enable them to efficiently undertake such a programme.

Thirdly, as a result of the faulty educational programme during the British period, and due to extreme poverty, the people could hardly afford to give adequate attention to their cultural development. So a cultural resurgence is also of a great importance.

From the analysis made it is clear that our educational objectives will have to be formulated with special reference to these broad needs. Thus, according to the Mudaliar Commission, the educational programme should aim at :

"The training of character to fit the students to participate creatively as citizens, in the emerging democratic social order, the improvement of their practical and vocational efficiency so that they may play their part in building up the economic prosperity of the country ; and the development of their literary, artistic and cultural interest, which are necessary for self-expression and for the full development of the human personality, without which a living national culture cannot come into being."

Higher Secondary Multi-purpose Schools : It cannot be denied that the Higher Secondary and Multi purpose Schools were proposed with a view to achieving the objectives mentioned above. The importance of secondary education is two-fold. *First*, it moulds the quality, standard and the type of primary education ; and *Secondly*, its quality determines the quality of higher education. The students seeking higher education and the teachers imparting primary education are both the products of the Higher Secondary Schools. So it is in the fitness of things that utmost care has been taken by the Secondary Education Commission to bring about a radical change in the secondary education in all aspects, e. g., curriculum, method of teaching, quality and status of teachers, study of languages, education of character and so on.

A critical estimate : It is now necessary to see how far the conversion of the high schools into Higher Secondary and Multi purpose schools will solve the problems of secondary education. No doubt, there is adequate merit of the scheme. It is a practical approach to evolve a system that will meet

the requirement of our country. The common core of languages, social studies and craft will enable the pupils to develop literary talents and to participate actively in the democratic social order. They will learn the value of work in society. The inclusion to the vocational subjects will arouse in them a creative interest and also enable them to take up vocational or productive work on coming out from the schools. Those who will go in for higher education or study will receive adequate initial training on the subject so that the study on the technical or other vocational subjects at higher level will be facilitated. Again, the students having interest on fine arts will have ample scope to develop their artistic and cultural talents. Thus far there is no two opinion against the fact that Higher Secondary and Multi-purpose schools will solve to a great extent the problems of secondary education in India.

Shortcomings : The question will now come as to how far the scheme will be successful in its present form with reference to its organisational set up administration and finance. The actual results, the scheme bears do not indicate its success. The number of High Schools upgraded into Higher Secondary and Multi-purpose pattern are only 3000 and 200 respectively out of about 18000 till the end of the Second Plan Period. The progress has been further retarded during the Third Plan Period. It is worthwhile to consider the reasons for an unsatisfactory result.

The chief obstacle appears to be the financial limitations. The programme envisaged is definitely a costly affair. The deversified courses, study of three languages, provision of extra-curricular activities, call for a very large financial outlay. This is hardly possible without raising the economic status of the country. The present economic resources can hardly meet the cost of upgrading of all the schools.

Secondly, the results show that such a complete upgrading is not at all necessary. The Commissions hope that only 25% of the students coming out of the Higher Secondary School would seek for higher education has failed. As a result, there has been a tremendous rush in the colleges for higher

education. It is, therefore, clear that more conversion of the high schools into the Higher Secondary or Multi-purpose pattern will only magnify the problem of educated unemployment. The problem may, however, be resolved by creating the necessary employment potential for the Higher Secondary school-leavers.

Thirdly, the study of three languages mostly in three scripts, is considered too heavy a burden on the students. As a result, the idea of inculcating a linguistic and literal aptitude is frustrated. The students become prone to cram and pass the examination somehow.

Fourthly, comes the most controversial issue, i. e., the curriculum with relation to the span of time allotted for it. It is seen that practically speaking, the standard of the diversified subjects, e. g., Science, Humanities etc. corresponds to the intermediate course of the old days. Under the present scheme, a student, at the eighth year has to decide on the subject to be elected at Class IX. But a student of Class VIII, 12 to 13 years of age, can hardly be expected to make a decision on his aptitude and inclination. Whatever might be the idea of the Commission, investigation has shown that aptitude and inclination do not manifest, at least the child is not in a position to judge them by himself, before the age of 16 years. Hence the selection of course, on which the entire career of the students depends, is left to chance or to the estimates of the guardian and the teachers. Again the novelty of the subjects, their technicalities are considered too difficulties to be grasped. Previously, this standard was placed before the students after their high school stage, when they had reached a certain stage of emotional maturity viz., at the age of 16. Under the present scheme, the same standard is faced by the students two years earlier, when their brains are too tender to grasp the subjects. This is, perhaps, the most tragic circumstances met with by a Higher Secondary student after the Class VIII. A section of educationists has, therefore, been strongly opposing the reduction of the twelve year course and the inclusion of the diversified course

before the stage of Class XI. The impracticability of the scheme in this respect is adequately established by now. It is relevant to mention that the Education Commission 1954-63 has rejected the scheme for eleven-year secondary education and has advocated a twelve-year course, the diversified courses being introduced at the eleventh year.

Fifthly, the availability of qualified teachers and giving them necessary training present of confronting problem. The scheme cannot be implemented with the available number of qualified teachers. With the progress at the present rate it may take a century to upgrade all the high schools. The scheme would be outdated by then.

From the critical analysis made, one thing is clear that mere upgrading of the high schools into Higher Secondary and Multipurpose schools will not solve the problem of Secondary Education in India. It is necessary to go deep into the problems enumerated earlier and find out ways and means to resolve them. Only then the Higher Secondary pattern may prove useful. Investigation on the following lines may be suggested :

1. The phasing of the period of study of the diversified course and the total duration of the Higher Secondary Course may be revised. This has already been suggested by the Education Commission 1964-65 and is under active consideration of the Government.

2. Financial resources should be developed by encouraging the growth of small industries and by other means.

3. Employment potential should be increased by taking up rural development programme in a wider scale.

4. Food production programme should aim at a quicker attainment of self-sufficiency.

Unfortunately, a condition of political unrest has pervaded the country. It is well nigh impossible, under a state of political uncertainty, to reach a clear decision, for, the problems are too many, and the resources are limited. Still,

it is hoped that a political equilibrium and an economic standard will soon be reached, when it will not be difficult to evolve the right type of secondary educational programme for the country.

CHAPTER 19

AIMS AND FUNCTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN INDIA

Q. 1. "The Development of education in the post independence period could not meet our national aspirations"—Discuss considering the aims and objectives of higher education. What steps would you suggest for meeting the deficiency?

Ans During the first twenty years of independence, there has been a phenomenal expansion in every sector of education. In the field of primary education, the total enrolment in Class I-V was 14.1 millions in 1946-47. It increased to about 40 millions in 1965-66. The percentage of enrolment to the total number of population in age group 6-14 increased from 35% to 60% during the same period. In the middle school stage the enrolment increased from 2 million to 10 million. In the field of secondary education the progress was still more. In 1946-47 there were 30.7 secondary schools with 1.55 million students. In 1965-66 the number of secondary schools rose to about 20,000 with about 5 million students. Similarly, in the field of higher education the total enrolment in general and professional education increased from 25 million in 1946-47 to about 1.5 million in 1965-66. But in spite of this unprecedented expansion, the entire programme has developed certain glaring defects due to which it failed to meet the national aspirations. The major courses for this failure are discussed below :

1. *First*, the country had rejected the Sargent Plan of 1945 on the National system of education, chiefly beca-

use it envisaged the desired development to be attained in course of a period of 40 years (1945-84). But the results and achievements up to the end of 3rd Plan (1966) is at a far lower level than the targets proposed in the Sargent Plan. Even with larger allocation of funds and an intensive development programme, a further period of 10 to 15 years will be required to reach the target. Thus the results of the educational plan made have failed to meet the national aspirations.

2. *Secondly*, the rapid expansion, particularly in the fields of primary and secondary education has resulted in a loss of qualitative improvement.

3. The main defects in the educational system prevailing in the British period are still existing. The wastage and stagnation in primary education could not be diminished. The singletrack system of secondary education leading to the sole object of collegiate education could not be replaced materially in spite of the introduction of vocational streams. Although noticeable improvement has been made in the pay status of secondary teachers, that of primary teachers still remain gloomy. Emphasis on higher education and secondary education in excess proportion to primary education was common item of criticism during the British period. But the same criticism is applicable even today. The people expected that these defects would be largely removed. But the expectation has failed.

4. Another serious defect of the present system of education that it has led to the crucial problem of educated unemployment. The position has reached an alarming stage when a sense of utter frustration, and unworthiness of education is developing among the students. This has been chiefly due to lack of harmony between the educational development and the development in the fields of economy and industry.

5. One of the most important causes of failure is that the educational system has not been properly reoriented to the changed and new social order the country decided to

create. The new social order would require the citizens to imbibe certain qualities of democratic value. These are, patriotism, a feeling of 'unity in diversity', respect and understanding of democracy, catholic outlook, dignity of labour, interest in science, zeal to work hard and so on. But hard fact is that the present educational system scarcely includes any positive programme in order to imbue the students with these values.

These are briefly the chief cause due to which the education development ; although appreciable, have failed to meet the national aspirations. In order to remove these defects and to streamline the educational system according to the national requirement, the future educational plan should give emphasis on the following special needs :

1. *Expansion* : In spite of appreciable expansion of education, India has not become an educated country. Much is yet to be done in the field of primary education in particular. By the end of sixth plan the higher secondary education should be intensified and cover a period of four years. The enrolment to secondary schools should also be raised to 40% of the children in the age group of 15-18. The university education should cover about 10% of the age group of 19-24. These standards are minimum for an industrially developed country and should be kept in view in the future planning.

2. *Qualitative improvement* : It is an admitted fact that the quality of education has been much diluted due to its rapid expansion. There is also a danger of further dilution due to further expansion. Utmost stress will therefore have to be given on improving the quality of education.

3. *Co-ordinating education to economic development* : It has been stated that the educational programme should be developed in harmony with the economic growth of the country failing which disastrous results may come. Acute poverty is a fundamental feature of the country. Unless the position is improved by a concerted programme of economic and industrial development, the educational programme will end in fiasco. It may happen in two ways. Either there may be educated unemployment or the educational programme itself

may fail owing to lack of finance. Again, education is considered the most important single factor leading to economic development. Thus educational programme should be co-ordinate with the programme of economic development.

4. *Human element and evaluation* : So far it has been a custom to portray the progress of education by the extent of enrolment. But this is a most incorrect evaluation. The type and quality of education imparted and imbibed should be given due consideration. A bad education may make the numerical progress utterly ineffective and dangerous. The country should, therefore, aim at having 'more and more' of 'better and still better education'. For this human factor is to be given due consideration and importance. The human factor includes the students, the teachers and the administrators. The student-teacher relation and the teacher-administrator relation should be based on understanding and sympathy. Each group has its own problems. So there must be a feeling of patience and co-operation in resolving these difficulties. The problems of these three human factors should, therefore, be given adequate importance in future plans.

Educational Planning : Multiplicity of the problems call for a moderately long-term educational plan. We have neither accepted Sargent's plan nor been able to layout an alternative comprehensive plan. Instead, short-term plans are being operated. But the result has not been upto the mark. It is, therefore, necessary to make a comprehensive plan for the coming fifteen years at least. The following is the broad outline of such plan, prepared on the basis of experience on the last three Five-Year Plans.

1. *Objective of Higher Education* : In addition to the absolute objectives like 'development of personality' the educational plan of India shall aim at the following topical objectives :

(i) Achievement of a national emotional integration. Notwithstanding the external diversity there is an underlying emotional unity.

(ii) Development of values, attitudes and habits favourable to maintenance of democracy.

(iii) Building up spiritual and moral outlook which should be secular in nature.

(iv) Attainment of increased productivity.

(v) Development of scientific outlook and interest on science. There may be other objectives but there are some very important objectives which are set in view of the present situation.

2. *Content of Education* : In order to meet the challenge before the country it is necessary to increase the content of education. For example Dr. D. S. Kothari, the Chairman of the University Grants Commission suggested that at the end of the 5th Five-Year Plan, the standard of the secondary education and the first degree course should be such as to correspond to the present Intermediate and Masters Degree. Without being dogmatic this point is to be given due consideration and adequate research should be made to revise the curriculum so as to intensify the contents. The period may be extended if necessary. One thing is certain. Utmost emphasis should be given on science and technology in the curriculum.

3. *Search for talent* : Another important programme should be to discover talent at all stages—Primary, Secondary and University and to provide best educational opportunity to the talented children. Larger scholarships, more number of better schools and institutions, teachers of high degree of proficiency should be provided to cater to the needs of those talented students.

4. *Higher Education* :

(i) Standard of education should be improved.

(ii) Vigorous attempt should be directed to increase the enrolment to at least 10% of the age group of 18-24.

(iii) Adequate facilities should be provided for talented students by extending scholarships etc.

(iv) Definite policy decision is necessary regarding the medium of instruction.

Q 2. Discuss briefly the proposal put forward in the report of the Advisory Board of Education on the post-war educational development in India.

Or, Write notes on Sargent Committee's Report.

Ans. The Central Advisory Board of Education had been examining since 1935 the various aspects of Indian Education. By 1943, it was in a position to consolidate its recommendations. A further lead was given by the Governor-General-in-Council by asking the Board to prepare a post-war development plan on education. Accordingly, the Board submitted an elaborate report on post-war educational development in India in 1944. This is commonly known as the Sargent Report or Sargent's Scheme, after the name of Sir John Sargent, the then educational adviser to the Government of India. It attempted to plan a national system of education in India and it includes every phase of education. As such, it is considered to be a memorable document in the history of education in India.

The object of this scheme was to create in India in less than forty years, the same standard of educational attainment as has already been attained in England.

The principal features of the scheme are enumerated below :

Primary Education : (1) Universal, free and primary or basis education should be provided for all children between the age-group 6—14 years, and this should be divided into two phases : Junior Basic (6—11) and Senior Basic (12—14).

(2) Pre-primary education should be provided for children between 4 and 6 years of age.

(3) Preferably female teachers should be employed to teach the pupils.

(4) The curriculum should be activity centred as far as possible.

Secondary Education : (1) Secondary or high school education should be provided for selected students of the age-group 11—17 years and should be for six years.

(2) The high school should be of two categories, viz., (a) academic, and (b) technical. The academic school will give instruction in arts and sciences, while the technical school will impart instructions in applied sciences and commercial subjects.

(3) Home Science should be introduced for girls.

(4) Stipends and allowances should be provided for poor but meritorious students.

(5) While mother-tongue should be the medium of instruction, English should be regarded as a second compulsory subjects.

University Education : (1) The university course should extend to three years after Higher Secondary Examination, for selected students.

(2) A fairly high standard of education should be provided for in the post-graduate course.

Other recommendations : 1. There should be adequate provision for the training of teachers for proper implementation of the scheme.

2. Adequate technical, commercial and art education should be provided for full-time and part-time students.

3. Compulsory physical education and medical check-up of students should be organised. There should also be a provision for milk and mid-day meals for undernourished children.

4. Adult literacy should be expanded and the Public Library System should be developed in course of 20 years.

5. Social and recreational activities should be provided for on a liberal scale for proper utilisation of student's leisure.

6. Employment bureaus should be created.

7. Physically and mentally handicapped children should

be imparted suitable education under specially trained teachers.

Recommendations on different stages of education :

(A) *Primary Education* : It is important to note that the primary education as envisaged by the Central Advisory Board has many of the ideas contained in the Wardha Scheme, though it differs from it in several important points. The main principle of "learning by doing" has been accepted. As the lower stage the activity may take various forms, which will gradually lead to a basic craft suited to local conditions. The previous concept of teaching the three R's was considered by the Board as an inadequate equipment for efficient citizenship. The Board's views, however, differed from the original Basic Scheme in the following respects :

(i) The entire expenses of education at any stage, far to speak of the lowest stage, cannot be expected to be covered by the sale proceeds by the students. At best, the sales may cover the cost of materials required for practical work.

(ii) On leaving the school the student should be prepared to take his place as a future citizen and work in the community. With this end in view, the Senior Basic School should provide for co-operative activities physical training and games, as a supplementary to the theoretical instructions.

(B) *High School Education* : The Board viewed the high school education as not merely preparatory to the university education, but as a stage complete by itself. The main objects and provisions are analysed below :

(i) The students leaving the high School will normally qualify themselves for admission into the university.

(ii) In other cases, students after leaving the high school should be able to take up direct occupation with a further training for a period of 1—3 years where necessary.

(iii) The first year of the intermediate course should be merged with the Secondary Course, as its last year.

(iv) The re-organised high schools should be of two main categories,—Academic and Technical.

The academic stage will teach arts and pure sciences. The technical course will provide training in applied sciences and in industrial and commercial subjects.

(v) In both the types there will be a common 'core' of humanities, in the junior stage.

(vi) Art and music should be included in both.

(vii) Girls should take up a course of domestic science.

(viii) There should be a wide range of choice of subjects ; and transfer from one group to another should be made easy, specially upto the end of the junior course.

(ix) In rural areas there should be an agricultural bias in the curriculum.

(x) The medium of instruction should be the mother tongue.

(C) *University Education* : The Board observed that the existing university education has very little bearing with the practical needs of the community, as a whole. Too much emphasis is laid on the examinations. As a result, the students are prone to master book learning at the cost of original thinking and real scholarship. Matriculation examination is the only test for admission to universities. As such, the universities are open to a huge lot of commoners. The result is a large extent of failure in the university examinations. On the other hand, real meritorious students, who are poor, are deprived of the university education.

The recommendations of the Report are summarised below :

(i) The condition of admission should be so revised as to ensure admissions for all students capable of taking university education.

(ii) This will be ensured by a reorganisation of the high schools. The whole of Intermediate course should ultimately be merged with the high school. As an immediate measure, the first year should only be merged.

(iii) This period of university education should be of a minimum of three years.

(iv) The tutorial system should be extended as far as possible. There should be close personal contacts between the teachers and the students.

(v) There should be a high standard of post-graduate education. There should be provisions for research in pure and applied sciences.

(vi) The service conditions of colleges and university teachers should be improved so as to attract men and women of calibre.

(D) *Technical and Vocational Education*: The Board emphasised proper technical education for four categories of personnel required in the Arts and Industries of the country, as under :

(i) *Executive and Research Workers*: They will receive their initial training in technical schools and find place in a technological department of a university. The admission to these courses in the university should be severely restricted by a strict process of selection.

(ii) *Minor Executives, Foremen, Chargemen etc.*: The Technical High Schools should normally meet these requirements. But the students passing from any such technical school should continue his technical studies by taking a diploma or certificate course.

(iii) *Skilled Craftsmen*: The Technical Schools students may be recruited for these situations. But they must pass the Senior Basic Stage and thereafter take a Junior Technical course for a period of two or three years.

(iv) *Semi-skilled and Unskilled Labours*: These will be recruited from the Senior Basic Schools where they have learned some crafts. Facilities for a further general education should be provided to them, so that they can raise their efficiency and rise to the skilled class.

(v) *Part time system*: The Report makes a provision for part-time system. This will enable the workers to increase their technical skill by attending these institutions at their leisure.

(E) *Adult Education* : The Report makes the following recommendations in respect of adult education :—

(i) Adult education should be given to people of the age range of 10—40 years.

(ii) Separate classes should be organised for boys between 10 to 16 years. Separate classes are also preferable for young girls.

(iii) Audio-visual and mechanical aids such as pictures, diagrams, objects, magic lanterns, radio and cinema, should be freely used to make the instructions interesting.

(iv) There should be an adequate provision for libraries. To reduce the cost, circulating libraries with the system of exchange of books, are recommended.

(v) In view of the enormity of the problem, the State should accept the primary responsibility of adult education. The first five years should be devoted to groundwork and planning, including training of teachers.

Financial implication : The total financial outlay estimated in the Report is Rs. 31·26 million rupees, out of which Rs. 27·70 millions should come from public funds.

Criticism : The Report of the Central Advisory Board is considered to have laid down the basis of a national system of education. It has provided the basis of a good programme of education, ever after independence.

The principal features of the Report, which are commendable from the above point of view, are discussed below :

(1) It is the first comprehensive plan for national education. It does not presuppose, like other schemes, an educational inferiority of India amongst the nations. But it is based on the convention that India is competent enough to achieve the desired progress in the sphere of education like other countries.

(2) The Scheme provides for equality of opportunity at different stages of education. At the primary stage it demands not only the provision for free education but also other facilities like books, scholarship, medical treatment, mid-day meals etc. At higher stages scholarships and free-

studentship are proposed for really deserving poor students. This is a positive step towards the goal of educational equality.

(3) The report gives due importance to the teaching profession, which was so long neglected or was dealt with half-heartedly. It advocates for raising the standard of salary and service conditions of the teachers. It also recommends a minimum national scale of pay for the teachers of various cadres and provides for suitable adjustment thereof according to the rise in the standard of living. The scale has been given effect to in several provinces, but the result has, however, not been satisfactory. The reason is that the rise in the pay scale has not been commensurating with the rise in the cost of living.

In spite of the good points of the Report as discussed above, there are failings on certain points. These are so important that they cannot be overlooked. These are discussed below :

(1) *First*, the idea that India would reach an educational standard of England in 1939, in course of a period of 40 years presented a very dismal picture. This would mean that even in 1984, even with the scheme fully implemented, India would lag behind England by 45 years. This cannot be a satisfactory proposal for national development.

(2) *Secondly*, the period of 40 years fixed for the execution of the plan was due to the fact that it would be impossible to get the requisite number of qualified teachers within a shorter period. The Report perhaps intended not to employ a teacher unless he is fully qualified. But this idea may seem to be unpractical for a developing nation, which can hardly wait for such a long period. It would be much more practical to start execution of the scheme with the existing number of qualified teachers and to take up, at the same time, a programme for training to teachers. If necessary, the services of educated people could be requisitioned as in times of emergency or in war.

(3) *Thirdly*, the financial implication of the scheme was

enormous. The cost of execution of the scheme was approximately Rs. 313 crores. This may rise to the tune of Rs. 1000 crores with the growth of population. Such an ambitious ideal is somewhat utopian. Unless an ideal can be properly worked out, the plan cannot be accepted.

(4) *Fourthly*, the ideal of England viewed in the plan cannot be expected to serve as a model for India.

Under the circumstances the plan as offered by the Sargent Report was not acceptable to the administrators of the free India. But nevertheless, as it has already been pointed out, it occupies a very important position in the history of education in India, as a valuable document.

Q. 3. The Sargent Committee's report has sometimes been described as an epoch-making plan in the history of national educational system. Do you agree? Give reasons for your answer.

Ans. Before commenting on the statement, it is necessary to know the essential features of the Sargent Committee's Report. These are enumerated below :

[Here give the recommendations as in previous question.]

An epoch-making plan : The Sargent Committee's Report has been regarded by some as an epoch-making plan in the history of national educational system. There are several commendable features which tend to justify such a statement. These are discussed below :

(1) It is the first comprehensive plan for a national system of education. It does not make a half-hearted attempt in changing or modifying certain portions of the existing system. But it is bold enough to reject many of the old principles and suggest new ones.

(2) In most of the educational plans enunciated earlier, it was assumed that India is not advanced enough to attain a progress in the educational field like other progressive countries. But the Sargent Report does not presuppose such an educational inferiority of India in the committee of nations. It is based on the presumption that the advancement of

education, as achieved by other nations, is well within the competence of India.

(3) The Report followed the democratic principle of equality of opportunity for all at different stages of education. It not only considered matters relating to school instructions, but also provided various other facilities like books, scholarships, medical treatment, mid-day meals etc. These are helpful in creating an environment of equality.

(4) By considering various other factors of pupil's development, e. g., health, food, extramural and social activities, the Report aimed at the development of the whole life of a man. It considered education as an integral part of life.

(5) The Report laid a high degree of importance on the teaching profession. It made specific proposals for increasing the salaries and improving the conditions of service of the teachers. It not only laid down minimum scales of pay for different categories of teachers, but also provided for an adjustment of the pay scale according to the rise in the cost of living. This national scale was adopted in several provinces. But it did not ultimately increase the attractiveness of the profession, due to the fact that the rise in pay was not commensurate with the rise in the cost of living.

Failings : Notwithstanding the outstanding good features as described above, the plan has several shortcomings, which cannot be overlooked. These are discussed below :

(1) *First*, the Report presented a tame ideal before the nation. It envisaged that India would reach the educational standard of England in 1939, in course of a period of 40 years. Thus it would appear that with the scheme fully implemented, India in 1984 would be still lagging 45 years behind England. This is, perhaps, the saddest outcome of the glorious plan. An acceptable and practical plan should aim at reaching the desired goal within a much shorter time, say 15-20 years. The ground for marking such a long time for reaching the target was the practical difficulty in getting the huge number of trained teachers required to implement the plan. The makers of the plan appear to have decided

not to employ untrained teachers. But this is too idealistic to suit the requirement of a developing nation. The programme could start with the available number of trained teachers, and the training programme could be simultaneously expanded. In a war, men are requisitioned or rather conscripted. In a war, against illiteracy, there was no bar in conscripting educated men for the purpose.

(2) *Secondly*, the report worked out a mere plan. It did not furnish a specific programme of action. It is not much difficult to lay down an ambitious plan and to set up at a far reaching target. What is really significant is prescribing the details of the various steps through which the target can be achieved. It must be admitted that the Report lacked in this essential aspect of the problem.

(3) *Thirdly*, the financial implication of the plan faced a storm of criticism. The total cost of the scheme was estimated at Rs. 313 crores. This was based on the population of India in 1940. So, it is likely to come to about Rs. 1,000 crores per annum, allowing for the increase in population. This is fabulous. Even with the industrial development, it was doubtful if such a huge finance would ever be available. In this context, the Report suggested two things. *First*, if the entire fund is not available, the scheme may be implemented on zonal basis, taking one zone after another. But this is hardly acceptable to the intelligent section of the people. *Secondly*, the report remarked that if funds are not wanting in times of emergency or war, there is no reason why funds would not be available in this educational emergency. This argument sounds more idealistic than practical.

(4) *Fourthly*, the ideal of England set up in the Report is not practical. England cannot serve as the model for India. There are irreducible differences—geographical, socio-economic and political, between the two countries.

Conclusion : Now that a threadbare analysis of the Sargent Plan has been made, it may be considered how far the Report represents an epoch-making plan. It is true that the plan lacked in many important points and ignored

many practical problems. As such it may be treated as and unfeasible scheme. But it cannot be denied that it showed a new way of treating the educational problem of the country. In fact, many of its recommendations influenced the educational programme of the country in later years. We may, therefore, conclude by saying that the Sargent Report served as an ideal for educational planning and as such, may be regarded as an epoch-making document in the history of education in India.

CHAPTER 20

GROWTH OF THE INDIAN UNIVERSITIES

Q. 1. Trace briefly the progress of University and Collegiate Education in India during the period from 1854 to 1892.

Ans. *Formation of Universities:* The outstanding feature of Wood's Despatch of 1854 was its recommendations for setting up a Department of education and a University in each province, along with other proposals concerning collegiate, secondary and elementary education. The Government of India immediately took up the word of establishing Universities in Bombay, Madras and Calcutta. After three years of preparational works, Government of India passed the University Act in 1857 and incorporated these three universities.

The constitution of universities were practically the same with a few minor exceptions. The controlling body of the university consisted of a Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor and the Fellows.

The Chancellor was the Lt. Governor of the province. The Fellows were nominated by the Government and also included ex-officio members like the Chief Justice, Inspector of Education, Director of Public Instruction, etc. They

were appointed life members. This body was called the Senate, and was responsible for carrying in the administration of the university.

The chief object of the universities was "ascertaining, by means of examination, the persons who have acquired proficiency in various branches of learning and rewarding them by Academical Degrees, as evidence of their respective attainments."

Special features : It is important to analyse the following special features of the universities :

(i) The function of the universities was limited to the conduct of examination in the different stages of education, viz., secondary and collegiate. These were not actually the places of instruction but agencies to test the value of education obtained elsewhere. But Wood's Despatch had clearly advised the university to the "institution of professorships for the purpose of delivering lectures in various branches of learning." The universities disregarded the proposal and went on functioning in a narrow sphere by conducting examinations and conferring Degrees.

(ii) The Act gave all powers to the Senate in the conduct of university's day to day works. But the size of the Senate stood in the way of smooth functioning of its business. So under certain regulations framed by the Senate, the Syndicate with a few Fellows only was formed and it was given suitable powers.

(iii) The system of appointment of Fellows for life was another disadvantage. This resulted in an unwieldy size of the Senate.

(iv) The Universities were technically known as 'Affiliating Universities' and served to conduct the examinations of the affiliated colleges. The universities were formed after the pattern of London University. But it was unfortunate that only two years after, in 1859, the London-University itself abandoned the affiliating system and included the programme of direct teaching. It would have served the national interest in a better way had the Indian

University Acts were promulgated in 1859 instead of 1857.

Growth of Universities : There was practically no growth of universities until 1882 when the Punjab University was set up by a special Act of Incorporation. In the meantime the Indian Universities (Degree) Act was passed in 1860 which empowered the universities to confer diplomas, degrees or licences in various academic and technical branches of learning. In 1884 the universities were authorised to confer honorary degree of L. L. D.

The Punjab University differed from the other universities in several respects.

(i) It had a faculty of Oriental Learning and it conferred degrees of Bachelor, Master and Doctorate Oriental Learning as well as literary titles.

(ii) It conducted high proficiency examination in vernacular languages.

(iii) It granted titles to the students of Hindu and Muslim Law and medicine.

(iv) It conducted school examinations.

(v) It directly maintained an Oriental College and a Law College.

Growth of Collegiate Education : The Wood's Despatch of 1854, as already observed, led to the establishment of universities. After the entrance examination, the students were naturally inclined to take up the collegiate course of studies prescribed by the universities. The colleges, therefore, became a very important part of the universities, in regard to higher branches of education. From then on till the appointment of Indian Education Commission in 1882. There was a fairly rapid growth of colleges. This was due to several reasons. *First*, the secondary education developed rapidly during this period. *Secondly*, the Government extended liberal encouragement to collegiate education. *Thirdly*, the attainment of university degree provided opportunities of important positions in government service and of other material advantages.

Q. 2. Write short notes on : The Viswa Bharati.

Ans. Introduction : West Bengal is proud of having an international education centre in India, the Viswa Bharati. The name of the great poet Rabindranath Tagore will also be imprinted in the history of education in India for establishing this great seat of learning. Strangely enough, the Viswa Bharati to today emerged for a place which was selected by Maharshi Debendranath Tagore in 1863 as a place of meditation in peace and tranquility. It was named "Santi-Niketan"—the 'home of peace'.

Rabindranath's ideal : Rabindranath, who had little connection with school and college education, was considered as one of the leading philosophers of the world. His educational philosophy was based on 'tapovana'-ideal of ancient India. He believed in children's learning 'by living and working in nature'. Accordingly he established an experimental school at Santi-Niketan in 1907, in the style of an 'Ashrama'. After his return from the western countries Rabindranath was obsessed with an idea of a harmonious blending of the western knowledge with the Oriental culture. He was keen to establish an institution where the scholars of the East and West could meet together and evolve a method by which the oriental and occidental culture could be fully exchanged with a view to a better understanding between the people of the East and the West.

Viswa Bharati University : With this object in view, Viswa Bharati was started as a residential University at Santi-Niketan in 1921 by a relentless effort of Rabindranath. After Independence of India, the Viswa Bharati was given statutory recognition by the Act XXIX (1951) of the Indian Parliament. The following objectives were incorporated in the Act :

- (i) "To study the mind of man in its realisation of different aspects of truth from diverse points of view ;
- (ii) To bring into more intimate relation with one another, through patient study and research, the different culture of the East on the basis of their underlying unity ;

(iii) To approach the West from the standpoint of such a unity of the life and thought of Asia ; and

(iv) To seek to realise in a common fellowship of the study the meeting of the East and the West, and thus ultimately to strengthen the fundamental conditions of world peace through the establishment of free communication of ideas between the two hemispheres.

The University Campus : The Viswa Bharati is now recognised as an International University. The University Campus is located in a tranquil atmosphere near Bolpur in Birbhum district. It is free from the din and bustle of the material world, which is highly conducive to a concentrated study. The university has its various constituent colleges as under :

1. **Vidya Bhavan :** Here main streams of graduate and post-graduate studies in different branches of Humanities and Science are taught.
2. **Kala Bhavan :** Here Fine Arts and Crafts are taught.
3. **Siksha Bhavan :** This is the Higher Secondary School.
4. **Sangit Bhavan :** This is the college of Indian music and and dance.
5. **Silpa Sadan :** Here Industrial and technical training is given mainly on cottage industry.
6. **Vidya Bhavan :** This is teacher's training college.

Thus the Viswa Bharati is a seat of learning, complete by itself having its own organisation conducting education at every stage including training of teachers. The library of the Viswa Bharati is one of the best of its kind in Asia, having a total collection of about 1,5,000 manuscripts, from all parts of the world.

Educational arrangement : One of the remarkable features

of the Viswa Bharati is that renowned educationist from different parts of India are brought down here to teach. Similarly there is a national mingling of students. Besides, visitors from all parts of the world are invited to the university with a view to inter-communication of knowledge and culture. Scholars from abroad are also admitted as regular or casual students, for post-graduate studies in several oriental languages, viz, Sanskrit, Hindi, Pali, Bengali, Chinese and Tibetan. Post graduate courses are also provided in Ancient Indian History, Indian Philosophy and Indology. Facilities are also provided for the study of fine Arts and Dancing. The students are provided opportunity to attend any class or courses in any other department, provided his interest and aptitude are proved. This is the most remarkable privilege allowed to the students.

The university provides a very wide curriculum, according to the taste and aptitudes of the students. The courses on painting, sculpture, woodcarving, 'battik' printing etc. are worth noting. Each section is in charge of expert and generous teachers. Classes are often held under the canopy of nature. Utmost emphasis is given on the 'learning in nature', and on the development of the personality of the students according to their individual tastes and aptitudes.

The teacher-students relation is extremely cordial and utmost care is taken to maintain an easy and friendly atmosphere in teaching. Education is made a pleasure and not a burden.

Another important feature of the university is its relation to the society outside. It maintains contact with the indigent masses of the neighbouring villages, and tries to help in solving their problems. It also take special care of the weak, indigent and backward students.

Various reasonal recreational programmes, exihibitions and fares are held in Santi-Niketan. These not only provide blissful leisure to the students, but also attracts a large number of people from different parts of the country; 'Barsha Bodhon', 'Barsha Mangal', 'Poush-Mela' are some of the finest recreational programmes held in Santi-Niketan.

The Viswa Bharati also maintains a Rural Institute of Higher education at Sri Niketan. It is a self-contained village developed under the Key-village Scheme, one mile from Santi-Niketan.

Conclusion : The life-long pursuit of the great poet of knowledge, truth and beauty may be considered as having consummated in the emergence of the Viswa Bharati. Although the poet is gone, he is still living in the high idealism of the institution among the leaves and flowers of Santi-Niketan and in this whole wonder land of education.

CHAPTER 21

CURZON'S POLICY ON HIGHER EDUCATION AND ITS INFLUENCE ON LATER DEVELOPMENT

Q. 1: Give a critical account of Lord Curzon's Educational Policy in India in respect of Higher education.

Ans. Lord Curzon became the Viceroy and Governor-General of India in 1898. His regime may be treated as a stepping-stone in the history of Indian education to a new era formed by the first two decades of the 20th century. The views that prompted Lord Curzon to go in for a reform in the existing educational policy are discussed below :

(a) The recommendations of the Indian Education Commission primarily aimed at the expansion of education through private enterprise. This object was achieved, as will be evident from the rapid expansion of secondary and collegiate education during the last quarter of the 19th century.

(b) As a result of the policy of 'laissez faire' to private enterprise, most of the private institutions turned to inefficient and poorly equipped organisations. They became rather

centres for preparing the students for examinations than real educational centres.

(c) The dismal position could only be improved by extending a greater state control over the education so as attain a qualitative improvement.

(d) Unlike the preceding period, larger amounts of finance, both provincial and central, were available, which provided a greater scope for examination of a direct control over education.

(e) A spirit of nationalism was dawning upon the Indian in general. So it was felt necessary to increase the departmental control, lest more of Indian control might affect the British interest.

With this background Lord Curzon convened a conference of the Directors of Public Instruction at Simla in 1901. In the conference he explained the need of educational reforms and stressed on the responsibility of the State on education: Based on the resolutions of this conference, Government of India's policy on education was declared in a Memorandum in 1904.

The Memorandum dealt with certain general reforms in the educational policy and also laid down specific recommendations in the field of primary, secondary and collegiate education.

The Memorandum laid down elaborate directives on the different stages of education.

Collegiate Education: So far as collegiate education is concerned, Lord Curzon carried out the following reforms:

(i) Rs. 13.5 lakhs were sanctioned as grant-in-aid for collegiate education. Large sums were sanctioned as grants to private colleges in order to raise the standard of teaching there.

(ii) Grants-in-aid were also provided for making hostels, laboratories, library etc.

Other Reforms: Several other important reforms were also made by Lord Curzon, as discussed below:

(i) *Agriculture Education* : Although a few agricultural colleges were set up before Lord Curzon, they hardly served any useful purpose. He established a Central Agricultural Research Institute at Pusa. He directed each province to set up its own College of Agriculture as a subject in the Middle and High School Courses for training of farmers' sons.

(ii) *Art School* : The controversy in the matter of continuance of the Art Schools was closed by Lord Curzon. He directed that they should continue with certain changes in their objectives and methods.

(iii) *Archaeological Department*—The creation of Archaeological Department, with a view to preserving the historical structure of India, was really an achievement of Lord Curzon.

(iv) *Moral Education* : Lord Curzon did not believe that inclusion of ethics in the curriculum could really bring about any uplift of the moral standards of the pupils. "If pupils can cram Euclid", he remarked, "there is nothing to prevent them from cramming ethics". He, therefore, laid down the principle of a secular education and directed to create an environment by which a moral and spiritual end is realised.

(v) *Foreign Scholarships* : These were introduced for sending Indian students abroad for higher studies on technical subjects.

(vi) The post of a Director General of Education was created at the Centre which was the initial step towards the creation of a Central Department of Education.

The Indian University Commission : The most important contribution of Lord Curzon was the reforms brought about in the University Education. He appointed on 27th January 1902 the Indian University Commission to furnish recommendations for improvement of the working of the universities in India. The Commission mainly dealt with the following matters :

(a) Re-organisation of the university administration with

special reference to the powers of Senate, Syndicate and the Government, and jurisdiction of the universities.

(b) Closer supervision of the colleges and imposition of more rigid conditions of affiliation by the university.

(c) Direct teaching function of the university.

(d) Changes in the curriculum and in the methods of examinations.

(e) Improvement in the conditions of living and working of the students,

The Indian Universities Act, 1904 : On the basis of the recommendations of the aforesaid Commission, the Indian Universities Act was passed in 1904. The main provisions of the Act are given below :

(i) Functions of the universities were extended to include direct teaching, appointment of professors, to maintain libraries and museums and to do all such acts which 'tend to the promotion of study and research'.

(ii) The size of the Senate was reduced by limiting the number of Fellows between fifty and hundred. The term of office of a Fellow also was limited to five years.

(iii) The Syndicate was given a statutory recognition and provided with representation from the professors.

(iv) Principle of a limited election was introduced.

(v) Rigid inspection and exacting terms of affiliation of the colleges were imposed.

(vi) Government was vested with certain powers regarding the regulations framed by the Senate, viz., to make additions or alterations.

(vii) Governor-General-in-Council was authorised to define the territorial jurisdiction of each university.

A Critical Appreciation : The educational policy of Lord Curzon was highly depreciated in his time by the majority of intellectuals of India, of whom Gokhale's name may be mentioned first. Their views were as under :

(a) Steps taken to control the secondary and collegiate

Education were considered as an attempt to thwart the growth of national feeling and not to raise the educational standard.

(b) The policy of qualitative improvement was decried under a condition where expansion of education was far from adequate.

(c) Wider expansion in secondary and collegiate education and compulsion in primary education were demanded.

(d) It was demanded to chalk out the educational programme in order to grow nationalism and not loyalty to the British Crown.

(e) Appointment of Europeans to the keyposts of Education Department was criticised, and complete 'Indianisation' was claimed.

(f) Adoption of English as the medium of instruction was objected to and modern Indian languages were demanded to replace English.

Notwithstanding all these criticism and objections which chiefly resulted from a supercilious outlook of Curzon on 'anything Indian', people of our time must have forgiven the actions of Curzon. He is, however, considered to have rendered valuable contributions to Indian Education. He initiated the reform of the Universities which led them to take the present shape. His attempt to raise the standard of secondary and collegiate education was praiseworthy. He did an invaluable service in improving the Agricultural Education. It was his initiative by which the Central responsibility towards education was admitted. In fact, he touched almost all spheres of education. In conclusion, we may say that inspite of all the intellectual powers and the strong desire to improve Indian education Lord Curzon made a blunder in making derogatory remarks against Indian sentiment.

Q. 2. Examine and evaluate the recommendations of the University Commission of 1902 in the light of the results they bore.

Ans. Introduction : The most important contribution

of Lord Curzon to Indian Education was the reforms brought about in the University administration. The circumstances which prompted him to think about the reform in University administration are discussed below :

First, the stereotyped functions of the universities in prescribing curricula, holding examinations and conferring degrees were considered insignificant for such important organisations. *Secondly*, the role of the universities in respect of the method of education followed in the schools and colleges was indifferent and not clearly define too. *Thirdly*, the university administration itself was full of defects and problems. According to him, a great deal of effort was necessary at this stage to bring about a desirable reform in the universities. So, Lord Curzon appointed on the 27th January 1902, the Indian University Commission to enquire into the condition of the existing universities in India and to recommend definite proposals for improvement in their constitution and working.

Recommendation of the University Commission : The commission's recommendations may be grouped into two broad issues. The first issue related to the administration and organisation of the universities, and the following recommendations were made on it :

(i) The unwieldy size of the Senate should be reduced to a convenient size, the total number of Fellows being limited to between fifty and hundred.

(ii) The tenure of Fellowship should be limited to five years instead of being for life.

(iii) One-fifth of the total number of Fellows should resign every year and new members taken.

(iv) The Syndicate should be given statutory recognition and should consist of nine to fifteen members. It should be represented by selected professors and 'Pandits'.

(v) The territorial jurisdiction of the university should be well determined.

(vi) More exacting terms of affiliation should be

imposed. A rigid and systematic inspection of the colleges were advocated so as to ensure affiliation of good colleges only.

The second issue related to improvement in the quality of university education. The following recommendations were laid down in this regard :

(i) Important changes in the curricula and in the methods of examinations were suggested. The standard of entrance examination was proposed to be raised and English text books were proposed to be withdrawn from the entrance course. The Intermediate stage was proposed to be abandoned by introducing a 3-year degree course. English, mother-tongue and an oriental languages were recommended to be studied in M. A.

(ii) Regarding examinations, the Commission recommended that a uniform standard of course, examination and degree in all the universities be introduced. It suggested to frame more exacting rules for the private examinees.

(iii) The Commission's most important recommendation was to entrust the universities with the responsibility of direct teaching at the Post-Graduate level.

(iv) It stressed on the need of building laboratories, libraries, hostels by the universities so as to ensure a better environment for living and work of the students.

Critical Estimate : The proposals were apparently narrow in their scope. It is interesting to note that the Secondary Education was out of the purview of the Indian University Commission just as the University Education was left out of purview of the Indian Education Commission of 1882. In both cases the problem was not tackled as a whole. Thus the present Commission was satisfied with the strengthening and a little modification of the existing university administration and the system of examination and affiliation. It did not aim at a fundamental reconstruction of the University system, which it should have. As a result, the leading Indians became doubtful about the bonafide of the proposed reforms. There was a general dissatisfaction. Sir

Gurudas Banerjee, one of the Indian members of the Commission, was also in opposition with the views of the members.

The Indian Universities Act, 1904—In the face of severe opposition. The Indian University Act was passed in 1904. The Act accepted most of the recommendations of the Commission. The following are the important reforms made by the Act :

(a) The scope and functions of the universities were expanded. The universities were empowered to provide for direct instruction, to appoint professors, maintain libraries, laboratories and museums and to do all acts which would tend to the promotion of study and research.

(b) The size of the Senate was reduced by limiting the number of Fellows and by reducing the term of their office fellows.

(c) The Syndicate was given a statutory recognition.

(d) The principle of restricted election was introduced.

(e) Rigid inspection and exacting terms of affiliation were imposed.

(f) Government was vested with powers to make modifications of university regulations framed by the Senate.

(g) Governor-General-in-Council was empowered to define territorial jurisdictions of the universities.

Reactions in India : It is natural that the Act was viewed with antipathy by the general Indian public with the background of a political awakening. Their opposition was mainly on the following grounds :

(i) The clauses of the Act vesting more powers to Government in the internal administration of the University, were greatly denounced. It was argued, and not unreasonably, that they sought to make the university a State Department.

(ii) The provision for exacting conditions of affiliation of college was strongly opposed. It was apprehended that

such a provision was designed to thwart the growth of private Indian enterprises.

(iii) The reduction of the size of the Senate was not opposed. But fear was expressed that it was a motive to create an European majority.

(iv) The principle of election was welcome. But it was pointed out that the number of seats for election was very few and that professors in general who were more intimate to the affairs of the University, had no scope to vote.

(v) The provision for direct teaching was apprehended to remain a pious wish, since there was no provision or promise for financial assistance.

Actual results : While the Government officials claimed these reforms to be the panacea of all evils of high education, the public opinion was dead against them and condemned them as retarding steps. But on analysis of the ultimate results they bore, it can be said that both views were extreme. It may be seen how these reforms affected the educational system.

First, the Commission aimed at strengthening the university administration. It cannot be denied that the Act succeeded in making the university administration more efficient than before.

Secondly, the rigorous condition of affiliation no doubt barred the growth of inefficient colleges. Thus the expectation of the recommendations fulfilled. On the other hand, the growth of private enterprise was not retarded rather it was accelerated. Of course, the university reforms alone was not responsible for this growth. Grants-in-aid, liberal private donations, higher scale of fees, increase in the number of students all these led to the rapid growth of private colleges after—1904.

Thirdly, the normal expenditure of the university was met from the examination fees. It was said that no educational improvement would be achieved by expanding the activity of this apprehension ultimately proved to be wrong. Government sanctioned in 1904-1905 a grant of Rs. 25 lacs

for five years. Out of this Rs. 11.5 lacs were allotted to the Universities and Rs. 13.5 lacs were allotted to the Provincial Governments for improvement of colleges.

In conclusion, therefore, we may observe that most of the apprehensions of the Indians did not prove to be true. On the other hand, the most zealous plan of the Lord Curzon, carried through a stormy opposition, did not yield any radical improvement in collegiate and university education, so wistfully hoped for. But Lord Curzon was, however, successful at least in one respect. The university reforms were able to create, as observed by the Sadler Commission, 'the most completely government universities in the world.'

CHAPTER 22

THE CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY COMMISSION

Q. 1. What are the main features of the Report of the Calcutta University Commission. How far did it influence the educational policy of the government ?

Or, Describe briefly the important findings and recommendations of the Sadler's Commission. How far were they carried out in the subsequent educational development in India ?

Ans. The Government resolution on educational policy adopted in 1913 relating to the University and Secondary Education was not implemented pending a detailed enquiry into the matter. The adversity of the Great War having mitigated, Government of India appointed in 1917, the Calcutta University Commission, with Dr. M. E. Sadler, Vice Chancellor of Leeds University as its President. The Commission was known as the Sadler Commission after the

name of its President and included Sir Ashutosh Mukherjee, the eminent educationist and the then Director of Public Instruction, Bengal, besides five other European and Indian members. The Chief task before the Commission was to recommend suitable modifications in the organisation and educational policy so far as the Calcutta University was concerned. The terms of reference was based on those of the London University Commission. Although the Commission referred to Calcutta University only, it undertook a thorough study of the problems of the university education as a whole, which were more or less common to other universities as well. The Commission also viewed that the condition of a university is inseparably linked with the secondary education, which was the foundation of university education. The report of the Commission was, therefore, a unique document of interprovincial merit and covered all spheres of education, e. g., Secondary, Collegiate and University Education. The main features of report are now discussed below :—

Secondary Education : The Commission appreciated the interest of the students in schools of secondary education. But it found that the state of secondary education was far from satisfactory, chiefly due to inadequate funds and want of efficient teachers. The Commission, therefore, recommended the following measures.

(1) **Finance :** Government should provide adequate funds for improvement of secondary education. Rupees Forty lacs were estimated, is additional requirement for this purpose.

2. **Organisation**—With a view to relieving the universities form the onus of secondary education, the Commission recommended the creation of a Board for directing and controlling the secondary education. There were two reasons behind this. *First*, the university could direct its whole attention to higher education, and *Secondly*, the sole object of secondary education was not to prepare the pupils for university education. It was suggested that the Board should consists of a majority of non-official members and should include members from the people and the university as well.

(i) The dividing line between the university and secondary courses is more properly drawn at the intermediate examination than at the Matriculation.

(ii) The Government should, therefore, create a new type of colleges called the Intermediate Colleges which would provide for instructions in Arts, Science, Medicine, Engineering, Teaching etc.

(iii) The admission test for universities should be the passing of Intermediate Examination.

(iv) A Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education consisting of the representatives of Government, University, High Schools and Intermediate College, should be established and entrusted with the administration and control of secondary education at high school and intermediate stages.

University Education : The Commission held that the Calcutta University had so control too many colleges and therefore made the following recommendations :

(i) A unitary teaching university should be established at Dacca.

(ii) A teaching university should be established in Calcutta by pooling together the teaching resources of Calcutta.

(iii) The colleges in the mufassils should be so developed as to ensure the gradual rise of new universities.

Regarding university education, the commission made the following general recommendations :

(i) The Degree Course should extend to three years after than Intermediate Stage.

(ii) Honours Course should be introduced as distinct from the Pass Course for the more meritorious students.

(iii) Professors and Readers should be appointed by selection committees.

(iv) Steps should be taken to encourage the Muslim students in view of their general backwardness in education.

(v) There should be a Director of Physical Training in

each university to look to the physical welfare of the students.

(vi) There should be a Board of Students' Welfare to supervise the students' health and accommodation.

Effects of the recommendations—The effects of the recommendations of the Commission on the various aspects of education in India are discussed below :

Universities : (a) The report created a great enthusiasm and led to the establishment of new universities. Seven new universities, viz., Mysore, Patna, Benaras, Aligarh, Dhaka, Lucknow and Osmania Universities, were set up during the period from 1916 to 1921.

(b) The teaching work of the universities was improved by organising lectures of eminent personalities on invitation, creation of university chairs in some subjects, and conducting honours and post-graduate classes.

(c) There was a considerable rise in the financial assistance given to the universities. The total Government grant to universities in 1921-1922 was Rs. 20.54 lacs.

Secondary Education Boards : The recommendation on Intermediate Examination and setting up of Boards of Secondary and Intermediate Education acted as a great impetus at first. Boards of Secondary and Intermediate Education were separated from several universities, e.g., Dhaka, Allahabad, Lucknow, Benaras and Aligarh. But the Calcutta University did not agree with the Government on the issue. So no Board was formed in Bengal. Very soon controversies began to centre round the issue and opposition began to grow against the formation of Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education. The chief grounds of opposition are given below :

(i) The degree colleges would suffer financial deficit if the Intermediate classes are separated, for they were a source of income to the degree colleges.

(ii) The intermediate classes would lose the benefit of efficient teachers of the degree classes. As a result, the standard of teaching would degrade.

(iii) The Commission's recommendation to extend the degree course to three years would be frustrated by the proposal. It would increase the cost of higher education, and would delay the time when a student would take up higher education.

(iv) The proposal would deprive the universities of the fees derived from the Matriculation and Intermediate Examinations.

The Commission had already foreseen this situation and therefore recommended additional grants to the universities. But it was doubtful how far the Government would provide these extra grants. So the universities were bound to suffer from financial loss.

These considerations checked the proposed reforms in respect of Intermediate Education as will be evident from the subsequent University Acts passed since 1926.

Conclusion : There cannot be any question on the sincerity of purpose and wideness of outlook of the report of the Commission. It touched all the aspects of education and attempted to turn the universities into real centres of higher education. But it was a costly affair to establish residential universities. So, much expansion in this direction could not be achieved. Still, the period from 1920 to 1937 may be regarded as a period of great progress in the field of university education. Other branches of education were also greatly influenced by the report. So, the report of the Calcutta University Commission may be regarded as the most important document in the history of education in India, and its influence has not ceased even now.

Q. 2. Why did the Government appoint the Calcutta University Commission in 1917.

Or, Examine critically the main recommendation of the Sadler Commission in 1917 ?

Ans. In order to ascertain the reasons of appointment of the Calcutta University Commission, we are to trace back the results of the Indian Universities Act of 1904. The Act

received strong opposition from the Indians, chiefly on the following issues—

(1) The provisions for direct teaching in the universities could not materialise without the provision for additional finance,

(2) The principle of election adopted in the Act was limited and narrow, as the number of seats thrown open to election was very few and the professors were not allowed to vote.

(3) The rigid terms of affiliation of colleges would discourage private enterprise.

(4) The limitations in the total number of Fellows in the Senate was apprehended to be a measure to ensure European majority in the Universities Constitution.

(5) The liberal powers given to the Government to interfere with the administration of the universities, were read as a plan to make the universities directly subordinate to the State Government.

The apprehensions were not altogether baseless. It was soon realised that the University Act of 1904 could not bring about much improvement in the higher education. The Government held that the Universities were too much examination centred and that they could hardly give due attention to higher education. It felt that the Universities ought to be relieved of the responsibility of Secondary Education. This idea was strengthened by the reforms of the British Universities in 1913, when most of them were reconstituted as unitary teaching and residential organisation on the background stated above. The Government of India passed the Resolution of 1913 adopting certain important measures in the fields of primary, secondary and university education. The chief value of the Resolution was in the formulation of a new policy on Secondary and University Education. But it was later considered that an enquiry was necessary before implementing the proposals. This, coupled with the emergency situation that developed due to the

Great War of 1914, made the resolution ineffective and it remained as a document of historical importance only.

It was on this background that the Government felt it necessary to revive the proposals contained in the Resolution of 1904, and to take effective steps to a suitable reform of the University. The war came to an end by 1917, when at the convocation of the Calcutta University, the Governor-General, as the Chancellor, declared in his convocation address, the decision of the Government of India to appoint a strong Commission to enquire into the affairs of the Calcutta University.

Secondary Education : The Commission appreciated the interest of the students in schools of secondary education. But it found that the state of secondary education was far from satisfactory, chiefly due to inadequate funds and want of efficient teachers. The Commission, therefore, recommended the following measures.

(1) **Finance**—Government should provide adequate funds for improvement of secondary education. Rupees Forty lacs were estimated is additional requirement for this purpose.

(2) **Organisation**—With a view to relieving the universities from the onus of secondary education, the Commission recommended the creation of a Board for directing and controlling the secondary education. There were two reasons behind this. *First*, the university could direct its whole attention to higher education, and *Secondly*, the sole object of secondary education was not to prepare the pupils for university education. It was suggested that the Board should consist of a majority of non-official members and should include members from the people and the university as well.

(i) The dividing line between the university and secondary courses is more properly drawn at the intermediate examination than at the Matriculation.

(ii) The Government should, therefore, create a new type of colleges called the Intermediate Colleges which would

provide for instructions in Arts, Science, Medicine, Engineering, Teaching etc.

(iii) The admission test for universities should be the passing of Intermediate Examination.

(iv) A Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education consisting of the representatives of Government, University, High Schools and Intermediate College, should be established and entrusted with the administration and control of secondary education at high school and intermediate stages.

University education : The Commission held that the Calcutta University had to control too many colleges and therefore made the following recommendations :

(i) A unitary teaching university should be established at Dhaka ;

(ii) A teaching university should be established at Calcutta by pooling together the teaching resources of Calcutta.

(iii) The colleges in the mufasils should be so developed as to ensure the gradual rise of new universities ;

Regarding university education the Commission made the following recommendations :

(i) The degree course should extend to three years after the Intermediate stage ;

(ii) Honours course should be introduced as distinct from the Pass Course for only meritorious students ;

(iii) Professors and Readers should be appointed by selection Committees ;

(iv) Steps should be taken to encourage the Muslim students in view of their general backwardness in education ;

(v) There should be a Director of Physical Training in each University to look to the physical welfare of the students ;

(vi) There should be a Board of students welfare to supervise the student's health and accommodation.

Effects of the recommendations—The effects of the

recommendations of the Commission on the various aspects of education in India are discussed below :

Universities : (a) The report created a great enthusiasm and led to the establishment of new universities. Seven new universities, viz., Mysore, Patna, Benaras, Aligarh, Dhaka, Lucknow and Osmania Universities, were set up during the period from 1916 to 1921.

(b) The teaching work of the universities was improved by organising lectures of eminent personalities on invitation, creation of university chairs in some subjects, and conducting honours and post-graduate classes.

(c) There was a considerable rise in the financial assistance given to the universities. The total Government grant to universities in 1921-1922 was Rs. 20-54 lacs.

Secondary Education Boards : The recommendation on Intermediate Examination and setting up of Boards of Secondary and Intermediate Education acted as a great impetus at first. Boards of Secondary and Intermediate Education were separated from several universities, e.g., Dhaka, Allahabad, Lucknow, Benaras and Aligarh. But the Calcutta University did not agree with the Government on the issue. So no Board was formed in Bengal. Very soon controversies began to centre round the issue and opposition began to grow against the formation of Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education.

CHAPTER 23

THE UNIVERSITY EDUCATION COMMISSION

Q. 1. Write notes on 'The aims of the University education as defined by the University Education Commission, 1949. Or, Radhakrishnan Commission.

Ans. The earliest reform taken up by the Government

of India after Independence is to appoint a University Education Commission under the presidentship of Dr. S. Radhakrishnan after whose name the Commission is known as the Radhakrishnan Commission. The object of appointing this Commission was a reconstruction of university education for national and cultural resurgence. Thus, among the terms of reference, naturally came first the aims and objects of university education.

The Commission's Report was elaborate and dealt with every sphere of education. The aims and objects of university education is recommended in the Report, are discussed below :

(1) A real education will unfold the universe in its true perspective and also provide for an integrated way of life. Education shall not, therefore, be a mere combination of certain branches of knowledge, but a well-co-ordinated and harmonised pattern of different items of knowledge.

(2) The subjects of education should form the parts of an integrated curriculum. The courses of university curriculum should include the following subjects :

- (i) Nationalism and internationalism.
- (ii) International affairs of peace, war and security.
- (iii) Various international problems.
- (iv) International civilisation in culture.

(3) The object of university education should not be mere imparting knowledge. The education should aim at instilling wisdom with knowledge and thus to educate the mind as well as the soul.

Q. 2. What reforms in university education are envisaged in the report of the Radhakrishnan Commission ?

Ans. With the independence of India a need for reorganisation of the university education was felt for a national and cultural resurgence and for proper training of the manpower required for an economic development of the country. With this end in view the Government appointed

University Education Commission under the presidentship of Dr. S. Radhakrishnan. The terms of reference included the following :

- (i) Aims and objects of university education.
- (ii) Standard of teaching.
- (iii) Courses of study including Technological training.
- (iv) Advanced studies in Indian history, literature and philosophy.
- (v) Medium of instruction.
- (vi) Examination.
- (vii) Administration and finance.
- (viii) The need for more universities.
- (ix) Religious education.

The chief recommendations of the Commission were as follows :

Category of teaching staff : The Commission felt that the status and service conditions of teaching staff should be thoroughly reviewed. It recommended that—

(a) teaching staff should be divided into four categories, e. g., Instructors, Lecturers, Readers and Professors ;

(b) merit should be the sole consideration for promotion of staff from one category to another.

(c) there should be some Research Fellows in each branch of Research ;

(d) proper method of selection of the teacher should be adopted ;

(e) the age of retirement of a teacher should be ordinarily 60. It may be extended to 65 in case of Professors.

Standard of Teaching : The Commission made the following recommendations :

(a) The intermediate stage of two years should be merged with the secondary stage. The university educa-

should begin after the intermediate stage, after total study for 12 years and should be limited of three years.

(b) Fundamental general education should be introduced in schools and colleges so as to correct the extreme specialisation which is common in the Intermediate and Degree programmes.

(c) The syllabus should be prepared so as to maintain the relation of particular a field of study to the general education. It should also have in view the general interest of the student as a citizen and also to his special occupational interest.

(d) Pure and fundamental research should be regarded as the frontier of knowledge. It is considered not only as the highest form of social service the Universities can render, but also as a prerequisite to efficient teaching.

(e) Considering the huge man-power required for the developing country, the universities should increase the number of scientist teachers by offering decent salaries and research facilities, and create more senior posts.

(f) New fields of post-graduate studies and research should be opened such as, fine arts, biology, archaeology, social science and world affairs.

(g) To avoid overcrowding, the maximum number in arts and science faculties of a teaching university should be fixed at 3000.

(h) The number of working days should be increased to 180 excluding the examination days, with three terms.

Mode of teaching and instructions : The following recommendations were made :

(a) Refresher courses should be organised by the universities for the High School and Intermediate teachers.

(b) All lectures should be carefully planned and followed by tutorial classes, written exercises and literary work. Tutorial instructions should be given to all students of the degree course in groups of six, University library should be developed for this purpose.

(c) For practical work, there should be no text book. Practical work should be solely guided by the teachers.

Medium of instruction : The subject of medium of instruction presented a lot of problems to the Commission, there being associated a sentiment against the English. The Commission's recommendations were as follows :

(a) Hindi should be treated as a federal language, and it should be adequately developed by adopting words from different sources and classic languages.

(b) Scientific terminology should be properly developed by a wide collection of terms and adopting them to the Indian phonetic system.

(c) English should be replaced as early possible, by the federal language, as the medium of instruction for higher studies.

(d) Students should be made familiar, right from the secondary stage, with three languages—federal language, regional language and English.

Administration and finance : The Commission considered the financial need of the universities to meet the new responsibilities and recommended that—

(a) The university education should be placed in the Current List.

(b) The university should function as autonomous bodies.

(c) The Central Government should accept responsibility with regard to finance. It should co-ordinate facilities in different subjects, help in the adoption of national policy, ensure minimum standard of efficient administration and act as liaison between the universities and the national research laboratories.

(d) A Central Grant Commission should be set up for allocating grants to universities.

(e) There should be no university of the purely affilia

ting type, and Govt. colleges should be gradually transformed into constituent colleges of the universities.

Examination : The Commission suggested a reform of the existing examination system, and laid emphasis on the objective and psychological tests. Its recommendations were :

(a) The present method of objective test should be gradually changed pending the development of the objective test methods.

(b) Proper value should be attached to the work done by the students throughout the year. For this purpose, 33% of the total marks on a subject should be allowed for class-work.

(c) Courses, which are more or less self-contained should be subject to periodical examinations spread over two to three years.

(d) Great care should be taken to select examiners. A minimum of five years of teaching experience should be fundamental criterion for selection of examiners.

Technology and Engineering : On the subject of technological and engineering studies, the Commission made the following recommendations :

(1) The existing engineering and technological institutions should be regarded as national assets and should be taken over by the universities to improve their utility according to the recommendations of the advisory Panel of Engineers and Technologists to be set up.

(2) The number of engineering schools of different grades should be increased so as to fulfil the needs of the developing country.

(3) Engineering and Technological courses should include in general education.

(4) New Engineering and Technological Institutes should be started keeping in view the requirement of the country for the types of engineering services. The students should be given suitable training to become self-reliant and to

acquire the initiative and courage to develop new industries by themselves.

(5) University Grants Commission should be assisted and guided by the Advisory Panel of Engineers and Technologists in the matter of according grants to these institutes.

Agricultural Education : The Commission realised the need for developing the agricultural production of the country in view of the fact that nearly 80% of her population is directly or indirectly dependent on agriculture and that the country must attain self-sufficiency in food without which industrial development would not be possible. It recognised the inadequate facilities existing for agricultural education. With this end in view the Commission made the following recommendations :

(a) Agricultural education should be regarded as a major national issue. The study of agriculture in primary, secondary and higher education, should be given a high priority in national planning.

(b) Matters relating to agricultural education and research and agricultural policy should rest in the hands of persons or associations having a direct and penetrating knowledge of agricultural life through participation and experience.

(c) The present agricultural colleges should be strengthened in staff and equipments and in addition to the study of the object, certain related subjects of practical value, like agricultural co-operative, should be introduced.

(d) Agricultural education should be given as far as possible, a setting for this purpose, the new agricultural colleges should be established in rural areas and associated with the rural universities. Such colleges should have close contact with the rural population and their problems.

(e) The Central and the Provincial Governments should set up a series of experimental farms in different agro-climatic zones of the country, as and when resources and man-power are available. These farms should be as far as possible near the agricultural schools and should serve as

models for practical study in agriculture by the students. Ultimately each agricultural institute and agricultural school should have its own farm so as to rouse in the students a keen interest in experiment and research activities. The Government farms will supplement this purpose as the students will be able to associate themselves with the experiments and research programmes carried on at those farms by the Government.

(f) There should be an Institute of Agricultural Policy, under the Council of Agricultural Research. The Institute will decide the long term agricultural policy with due regard to fundamental requirement of the country, and consider the sensibility of mobilising an international staff of qualified men.

Rural Universities : Another most important consideration made by the Commission was the establishment of rural universities. The recommendations of the Commission in this regard are summarised below :

(a) A positive improvement of the skill and training of the rural people must be brought about for the overall development of this primarily agrarian country. The Commission, therefore, stressed on the need of establishing rural universities in order to provide educational facilities to the rural people so as to revitalise the stagnant village-life.

(b) The number of students of a rural university should not ordinarily exceed 2500. It should be of residential type.

(c) As a groundwork for the establishment of such a university, a ring of small residential colleges should be set up in the rural areas, which will feed the future university.

(d) The colleges should be able to admit about 300 students each and should have their own teaching staff, and equipments. If funds do not permit, the libraries, laboratories and gymnasiums may be shared by more than one college.

(e) Each college should aim at imparting a general education to the students, and also at providing facilities to develop their individual aptitudes and interests.

(f) The administration of the rural university and its colleges should be run by men vitally associated with rural life and experienced in the rural needs of developments.

(g) The curriculum of the rural university should include a common core of liberal education. There should be specialised courses on diversified subjects according to the aptitude and need of students. They should not be fitted in arbitrarily to a fixed curriculum. The subjects should have a close bearing on the needs of rural life and must on no account be foreign to the country.

Conclusion : The Report of the Radhakrishnan Commission is a document of outstanding importance and may be treated as the foundation of the future of the national educational policy of free India. Many of its recommendations were accepted and formulated, while further detailed study was made on the aspect of secondary education according to the recommendations of the Commission.

Q. 3. How far the recommendations of the Radhakrishnan Commission (1949) influenced the subsequent educational programmes of India ?

Ans. Merits of the Report : The Report of University Education Commission, popularly known as the Radhakrishnan Commission is of a great importance in the history of education in India for two reasons. *First*, it is the first report of its kind after independence, and *secondly*, it covers the entire field of higher education in a new perspective. The following may be regarded as the outstanding features of the Report :

(1) It provides a realistic aim of university education, keeping an eye to the needs of the developing country.

(2) Its recommendation for setting up a University Grants Commission to advise Government on the allocation

of public fund to the universities and on other financial matters is highly commendable.

(3) It has made a notable recommendation in saying that the university education should be included in the Concurrent List.

(4) The Commission has made an outstanding recommendation by advising the setting up of rural universities for providing higher education in rural areas and for the resurgence of the stagnant rural life. This provision of the Report has been most timely when India was overladen by a continuous experimentation with the western city-based education.

Failings : The Report has its failings in certain respects. For example, it is alleged that the recommendations on the medium of instruction are not precise and clear. But it must be admitted that after independence, on other issue has raised a storm of controversy as the language issue has. Moreover, the question of sentiment is associated with this issue, so it was not an easy task to deal with this problem in a calm and unbiased disposition. *Secondly*, it has failed to attach the desired degree of emphasis on women's education, teaching of fine arts and oriental studies.

Without entering into controversy as to the justification of these little allegations, it may be said that as a pioneer educational report of independent India, it has a profound effect on the subsequent development and planning of educational programmes of the country in various fields. The most notable effects are discussed below :

1. *University Grants Commission :* In pursuance of the recommendation of Radhakrishnan Commission, the University Grants Commission was set up by the Government of India in 1953. The University Grants Commission Act was passed and a Statutory body was set up with Dr. C. D. Deshmukh as the Chairman in 1956. The Body consists of nine members, of whom, three are Vice-Chancellors of Universities, two are officers from the Central Government and the remaining are nominated from amongst the reputed educationists. Statutory authority was given to the Body in

order to co-ordinate the activities of the Universities. Moreover, it is important to note that necessary funds were placed at its disposal, for allocation to the Universities. During the Second and Third Plan periods Rs. 24 crores and Rs. 37 crores were placed at the disposal of the Committee. Although, the amount was not too large in comparison with the growing number of Universities, the achievements of the Commission deserve commendation in so far as the following aspects are considered :

(i) The Commission significantly contributed to the raising of salary and status of the teaching staff including Lecturers, Readers and Professors.

(ii) It was able to extend the facilities of libraries and laboratories and thus created an improved education for teaching.

(iii) The Commission went at length to examine several important problems associated with education, viz.,—Medium of instruction, indiscipline among students, teaching of English etc.

(iv) It was able to arouse an interest on higher education in the country and thus influenced the expansion of college and university education.

2, *Three-Year Degree Course* : The Radhakrishnan Commission's Report has influenced another programme viz., the introduction of a Three-Year Degree Course. The full recommendation of the Commission has not, however, been implemented. The 12-years secondary course (including the old intermediate course) has been replaced by an 11-year course according to the recommendation of a subsequent Commission, i.e., Mudaliar Commission. But most of the Universities have taken up the Three-Year Degree Course. A few that have not yet taken it up, are expected to follow the course in near future. This programme has also been actively assisted by the University Grants Commission. Unfortunately, the recommendation of Radhakrishnan Commission in this context has been partly adopted. But it is not known, if it will lead to a very desirable and happy consequence for

the reduction of the twelve-years secondary course to eleven-years and it has been facing a growing controversy till now.

3. *Higher Education in Rural Areas* : The Radhakrishnan Commission recommended the setting up of Rural Universities. Instead of readily accepting the suggestion, the Government of India appointed a Committee presided over by Dr. K. L. Srimali to make a further examination of the proposal. The Committee did not use the term 'Rural University', but instead, recommended setting up 'Rural Institutes', in the same line and with the similar objectives as envisaged in the Radhakrishnan Commission Report. The Committee, however, expressed hope that some of these Institutes might eventually turn into full-fledged universities. But it designated under any name whatsoever, these Institutes were deemed to have the following objectives. *First*, they would provide facilities of higher education in rural areas, and *secondly*, they would undertake a concerted programme of training, research and extension. These Institutes will thus function as nuclei for the development of the surrounding rural areas and also as the training grounds of the personnel required for rural development programmes. It will thus be seen that the recommendation of the Committee does not vary widely from that of the Radhakrishnan Commission. The result was however encouraging. 11 Rural Institutes have been set up in the country during the First and Second Plan period. It is also redeeming to mention that a good number of full-fledged universities have also grown up in rural areas in recent times. These Institutes provide a Three-Year Diploma Course in Rural Engineering and Rural Services, a Two-year Diploma course in Agriculture and a One-Year Course in Sanitation. Close contact to villages and a critical examination of their problems are being made in these Institutes, as a part of extension programme.

Secondary Education Commission : Another important outcome of the Radhakrishnan Commission is the appointment of the Secondary Education Commission (Mudaliar Commission) in 1952. The latter Commission was appointed

to suggest a reorganisation of the Secondary Course, which was a precondition to the proper development of the University Education. After the report of this Commission, there has been a perceptible encouragement to the growth of Secondary and Multipurpose Schools.

General Education : The recommendation of Radhakrishnan Commission to introduce general education as a preface to the specialised University Education, has been introduced only in a few Universities. Unfortunately, the proposal did not receive much popularity and has not been universally accepted.

Medium of Instruction : The proposal for changing the medium of instruction at university stage has not also been received cordially. Strong opinion persists in favour of continuing English as the medium of instruction. In the political circles, however, opinion is in favour of a gradual change over depending on the evolution of scientific terminology. At present, however, the Universities are not very keen for a change over, gradual or quick.

Examination : The reforms in the examination-system as suggested by the Commission have also failed to create any strong impression on the Universities. The old system of subjective tests appear to be more convenient.

Students' Welfare : Certain progress in the matter of providing facilities to students in the form of scholarships, physical activities, social service, living amenities etc. has been noticed. But the effect has not been remarkable enough owing to the over-crowding of students.

Conclusion : In fine, it may be said that, after all and in spite of its failings in certain respects, the Radhakrishnan Commission's Report, led to a considerable encouragement in the field of higher education of the country.

CHAPTER 24

KOTHARI COMMISSION AND HIGHER EDUCATION

Q. 1. Discuss the recommendation of the Kothari Commission in respect of Higher Education.

Ans. The Kothari Commission was appointed by the Government of India in 1946 to advise on a national plan of education, and on the general principles and policies for the development of education in India in all aspects. The Commission submitted its report on 30th June, 1966. The report is a voluminous one and contained a detailed analysis of all aspects of education at various stages.

The report opens with a significant remark, "The most important and urgent reform need in education is to transform it to endeavour to relate it to the life, needs, and aspirations of the people, and thereby make it a powerful instrument of social, economic and cultural transformation necessary for the realisation of the national goals."

The report defined the 'national goals' in the following lines :

"Education should be developed so as to increase productivity, achieve social and national integration, strengthen democracy, accelerate the process of modernisation, and cultivate social, moral and spiritual values."

While making recommendations the Commission defined the functions of universities as follows :

In board terms, the functions of a university are :

- (i) to seek and cultivate new knowledge ;
- (ii) to provide leadership and trained personnel imbued with a sense of social purpose ;
- (iii) to strive to promote equality and social justice ; and
- (iv) to foster the right kind of attitudes and values in teachers and students and through them in society generally.

It also recommended the provision for part-time and correspondence courses and extension programmes so as to provide varied educational facilities for aspirants.

The Salient features of the Commission in regard to Higher Education are as follows :

Selective admission : A system of selective admission has to be adopted to cope with the much larger demand for higher education.

Part-time education : Part-time courses should be provided for students particularly in science and technology.

College-size : The Commission recommended that a college should normally have a minimum enrolment of 500 students.

Education for women : The proportion of women and men students in higher education is 1 : 4. This should be increased to the ratio 1 : 3 to meet the requirements for educated women in different fields.

Study of Humanities : The Commission felt the need of humanistic studies.

Educational Research : It felt that urgent steps should be taken to develop educational research and relate it effectively to the formulation of educational policies and improvement of education. It suggested to set up a National Academy of Education consisting of eminent educationists, broadly on the lines of the National Institute of Science, to promote educational thought and research.

Major Universities : The most important reform in higher education is the development of some 'Major Universities' where post-graduate work and research would be possible. It recommended that the University Grants Commission should select, as soon as possible, from amongst the existing universities, about six universities for development as major universities.

Medium of instruction : The Commission recommended that the regional languages should be adopted as the medium

of instruction as the university stage in phased programme spread over ten years.

Student Services : Student services are not merely a welfare activity but constitute an integral part of education.

Student Discipline : Education should enable students to learn and practise civilised form of behaviour and to commit themselves to special values of significance. Efforts should be made to remove educational deficiencies that contribute to student unrest.

University Autonomy : The proper sphere of university autonomy lies in the selection of students, the appointment and promotion of teachers and the determination of courses of study, methods of teaching and the selection of areas and problems of research.

The University Grants Commission : All higher education should be regarded as an integrated whole and the University Grants Commission should ultimately represent the entire spectrum of higher education.

Agricultural Universities : The Commission recommended that there should be at least one Agricultural University in each State.

Q. 2. What do you know about the adult education in India ?

Ans. During the Sixth Plan the programme of functional literacy for adults in the economically productive age group 15-35 was implemented as part of minimum needs programme and a goal reaching cent per cent literacy by 1990 of 1,100 lakh adult literates in the age group 15-35 was visualised. The coverage of adult illiterates under the programme during the Sixth Plan is expected to be around 220 lakh. The enrolment has been increased from 25.9 lakh in 1980-81 to 65 lakh in 1984-85. The strategies and action plan to reach the goal lay emphasis on coverage of the districts having literacy rate below national average; coverage of special target groups e. g., women, scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and other weaker sections of the society, participation of youth and the students in univer-

sities and colleges in the literacy programmes, mobilisation of voluntary agencies and use of folk, traditional and mass media ; special efforts have been made to strengthen post-literacy and follow-up activities to avoid relapse into illiteracy of the neo-literates. The complementarity of universalisation of primary education and adult education is now being increasingly realised. To achieve the stipulated goal, the Government has resolved that existing adult education programmes may be converted into a mass movement for functional literacy by involving students, youth, retired defence personnel, house-wives, senior citizens, etc, on mass scale. To provide strong resource and training support to the programme, state resource centres working in different states have been strengthened.

Q. 3. What is the new programme of women's education ?

Ans. In recognition of the importance of education of girls and women in accelerating socio-economic development, the Government has formulated variety of measures from time to time in this direction. As a result of these measures there had been gradual but progressive increase in the enrolment of girls over the plan periods and gap in the education of boys and girls appeared to have been narrowing during the last few years. During the period ending 1980-81, there has been an annual growth of 2.8 per cent in enrolment in classes I to V and 6.5 per cent in classes VI to VIII for girls. In the context of the goal of achieving universalisation of elementary education by 1989-90, an additional enrolment of girls to the extent of 70 lakh at primary level and 26.50 lakh at middle level is proposed to be achieved by 1984-85, where as the corresponding figures of boys enrolment are 47 lakh and 36.50 lakh respectively.

Q. 4. What do you know of the new Educational Technology Programme ?

Ans. An Educational Technology Programme was started in the Central Sector of the Fourth Plan in 1972. It aims at deploying the resources of education technology for bringing about a qualitative improvement in education, widening access to education and reducing

existing disparities between different regions of the country as well as different sections of the population. Under this scheme educational technology cells have been set up in 21 states and a centre for educational technology in National Council of Educational Research and Training.

In the context of the availability of the television facilities of INSAT the Ministry of Information Broadcasting suggested that the user ministries should take an active part in the production of programmes meant for their specific uses. This would ensure that the programmes are relevant, meaningful and effective. It was thus necessary to create production capabilities at a decentralised level. The Ministry of Education decided that the responsibility for the production of educational television programmes would be gradually taken over by the educational authorities from Doordarshan.

In order to implement this decision it was necessary to set up programme production centres in the INSAT states in a phased manner. Accordingly, State Institute of Educational Technology (SIET) are being established in each of the size INSAT states, namely, Andhra Pradesh, Orissa, Gujrat, Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar, for promoting production of ETV (Educational Television) programmes, on a decentralised basis. The non-INSAT States and Union Territories are being prepared for participation in the INSAT programme through an educational technology scheme under which limited production capabilities are being created to enable the State and Union Territories to experiment in production of programmes and organise training courses. At the central level a Central Institute of Educational Technology (CIET) has been set up in National Council of Educational Research and Training by merging the existing centre for Educational Technology and Department of Teaching Aids.

The major priorities identified for educational programmes, particularly in relation to the use of radio and television facilities for educational purposes are (a) universalisation of elementary education, both formal and non-

formal ; (b) non-formal education for adults, linking education to economic and social tasks ; (c) development of vocational and professional skills ; (d) training for citizenship ; (e) popularising science with a view to developing a scientific outlook ; (f) promoting national integration ; and (g) providing information about themes of national importance—population education, education conservation, preservation of wild-life, environmental sanitation, nutrition and health.

Keeping in view of the large requirements for teacher education, the mass media will be used to broaden the horizon of teachers, to provide help informal-school teaching, and to assist in appreciation of the objectives of educational uses of television and radio to ensure better utilisation.

The state production centres will be responsible for the production of television programmes of acceptable professional quality and educational utility. To begin with the programmes would be limited to elementary education, non-formal education and teachers training. Once the production centre fully operational they will cater to the programme requirement of all levels of education.

The University Grants Commission attaches high importance to the use of educational technology for improving the standards of higher education and making it accessible to those who cannot benefit from the formal system. It is also proposed to utilise one hour transmission time available through INSAT—1B for higher education. For the production of appropriate programmes Audio Visual Research Centres are being set up at Jamia Milia Islamia, New Delhi, Universities of Pune, Ahmedabad, Osmania and Roorkee and the Central Institutes of English and Foreign Languages, Hyderabad.

CHAPTER 25

PROBLEMS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN INDIA AND REMEDIAL MEASURES

Q. 1. "We have paid a heavy price for learning through English in the past".—Elucidate the statement. In this context, state with reasons, if vernacular or the regional language should be the medium of instruction at the University Stage of education in the place of English.

Ans. Lord Macaulay in his famous Minute of 1835, observed that the Indian languages are unfit for communicating a knowledge of science and literature. He, therefore, advocated the use of English as medium of instruction in secondary education and higher education. The Government accepted the recommendation. Since 1835, English was used as the medium of Instruction and was also taught as a compulsory subject in schools and colleges. This state of affairs continued till 1937.

The use of English as the medium of instruction for this long period had several harmful effects which are discussed below :

1. Learning a subject through a foreign language proved an excessive burden on the students. *First*, there is the difficulty of acquiring a mastery over the language and then a greater difficulty in grasping the subject. This led to acquiring rather mastery over words in place of acquiring knowledge of things and realities.

2. The difficulty in getting conversant with the language did another harm. The students, instead of taking the trouble of reading text books had recourse to a short cut process of learning through 'notes' and 'made-easy'. This was an irreparable harm to the students, who developed little thinking and power of reasoning and went on memorising. This led to a colossal wastage. There was a

large proportion of failure, and those who passed were poor in literary quality.

3. Even if the students could somehow acquire knowledge and express himself in a foreign tongue, no creative thinking was possible. A speaker of one language has rarely been found to contribute to literature and culture in a different language. Thus, the system has remarkably effected originality of thought and development of literature in Indian languages.

4. Last but not the least, the long practice of giving emphasis on English has miserably rusted and impoverished the Indian languages. At the same time the forcible cramming in English could not also enrich this foreign language which was so assiduously studied.

It can, therefore, be said that the compulsion of English as a medium of instruction and the continuous neglect of Indian languages have developed glaring defects in the system of education. It has, therefore, been rightly regretted in the Report of the Radhakrishnan Commission that "we have paid a heavy price for learning through English in the past".

By this time there has been unanimous opinion in favour of the mother tongue as the medium of instruction at the primary and secondary stage. But opinion is greatly controversial as to the medium of instruction at the collegiate and university level. One group of thinkers is in favour of having English as the medium of instruction at higher stages. The other group, however, supports regional languages. Both have their own view points and arguments.

Arguments in favour of English: The arguments put forth in favour of retaining English as the medium of instruction are given below :

1. The introduction of regional languages will engender provincialism. Absence of a link-language will create a spirit of diversity. Thus, it will tend to create conditions which are deterrent to the unity of India.

2. It will tend to fix up the teachers and students in water-tight compartments of region and inter-regional movement of teachers and students will not be possible.

3. There being no suitable text books on regional languages, these will have to be translated from the original works. The quality of the translated books will be bound to be lower than of the original works. So the general standard of education will be lowered.

4. Preparation of text books and evolving scientific terminology in regional languages will be a wastage of energy and money. Instead of dissipating energy in this issue, it is wise to think of other more important problems of the country.

5. Introduction of regional language will result in variation in the standard of examinations and also in the standard of education. It will, therefore, be difficult for the students to compete in all-India examinations, and to enter all-India service.

6. The country will hardly be able to produce all-India leadership, in the field of science, literature, politics and other subjects.

7. The field of activities in vocations like engineering, law etc. will be limited. For example, a lawyer of Madras could not farewell in the court of the Punjab.

Arguments in favour of Regional languages :

The supporters of regional languages do not consider the problems related above as unsurmountable and put forth the following grounds in refuting the above arguments :

1. Although language is a binding force to maintain unity, the difference in languages is not considered a disintegrating factor to the extent it is apprehended to be. A proper instillation of democratic values will remove this difficulty. Moreover, there are other stronger factors, than a switch over to the regional languages as media of instruction in university education which lead to a real peril

of distintegration of India. Hence, the apprehension that the unity of India will be endangered is not sound.

2. The problem of immobilisation of the teacher and students is not so much critical. *First*, it is not difficult to learn the language of a sister State. *Secondly*, the three language formula at the secondary stage will enable the teachers and students to fit themselves in a stage outside their own. *Thirdly*, the task of imparting and receiving instruction in regional language will be more easy, and effective, and the impression will be permanent.

3. The ground of lowering the standard of education due to absence of text books is untenable. The regional languages are not really poor as it is alleged. They have been rendered weak by allowing them to remain stagnant by neglect. Most of the regional languages can be enriched with a little attempt. Thirty-five universities have switched over to regional languages and they are successfully running. There is no reason why the development of the regional languages which was once possible for the foreign missionaries in India, will not be possible now for the Indians.

4. It is true that the change-over to regional languages involves spending a good deal of energy and money. But compared to the harm that has been done by learning through English, this little money and energy will not be ill spent. Time has come when an overall effort to enrich the regional languages cannot brook delay. And this is possible only by adopting the regional languages as media of instruction in the higher stages of education.

5. The variation in the standard of education and in the standard of examination apprehended, is equally possible when English is the medium of instruction. There are universities where English is the medium of instruction, and still the standards are different. As a matter of fact, the standard of education depends not on the medium of instruction, but on various other factors, e. g., curriculum, method of teaching, efficiency of the teaching staff, environment etc. Moreover, all-India services are given on the result of examination held by the Public Service Commission and

not on university examination results. It is not also difficult to arrange to hold all-India competitive tests in regional languages.

6. Leadership is a matter that has hardly any bearing on the university education. India has produced a galaxy of all-India leaders of high eminence, from the different provinces. Tagore's and Gandhiji's leadership in the fields of literature and politics respectively were not certainly due to their knowledge of English. The great leaders of other countries are not known to have mastered a foreign language other than their own mother language. Soviet Russia, a union of a number of linguistic States is a glaring example.

7. The problem posed by pointing out the professional limitations, is not very important. It is not an insurmountable difficulty, and can be resolved by the application of the three-language formula and developing one out of them as the link language. There is, however, no bar in adoption English as one of them.

Analysis of the problem : On a dispassionate view on the arguments preferred for and against the adoption of regional languages as the media of instruction at the university stage, it cannot be denied that regional languages cannot be done away with. Prior to independence, the issue of medium of instruction did not create any problem, as English was universally adopted. But after 1947, the policy has been changed on the basis of national requirement, and emphasis on English at the secondary stage has been much reduced. This has also enriched the regional languages considerable during the last two decades. But it has also led to another problem. An average student at the university level finds it hard to follow lectures in English and read English with fluency. The policy taken at the secondary stage will, therefore, call for a revision of policy as well. Thus sooner or later, regional languages will have to be adopted as the media of instruction at the university stage.

There will be initial difficulty in the form of evolving text books and exhaustive terminology. So, proper planning shall have to be done to meet these difficulties through a

phased programme during the next ten years. Most of the regional languages are basically rich in having their origin in the classic languages of the country, like Sanskrit, Arabic etc. If necessary, there should be no hesitation to borrow terms and vocabularies from other languages. This work will not only require adequate money but also suitable research by talented persons, which the universities are to find out and provide. In this connection, care should be taken to see and preserve the interest of the minority linguistic groups.

There is another point to be considered. With the gradual adoption of the regional languages as media of instruction in the university and as language in administration, the necessary link-language must arise, so that inter-region communication is possible. Hindi has been given the status of the official language for the country. This language will have, therefore, to be developed adequately. Steps may also be taken to popularise Hindi in the non-Hindi speaking areas. But too much of exuberance should be guarded against, for that will do more harm than benefit.

A third link-language is also necessary to serve, so to say, a window on the world. Unquestionably, English will be the language. It has now assumed a status of world language and cannot be done away with by the educated men. Culture of English as a language should be made compulsory in the university. A good system of teaching English should be developed on the basis of a sound research.

Conclusion : A lot of controversy still exists in the adoption of three-language formula. The propositions made above are based on the recommendations of the Education Commission 1964-66, which suggests the adoption of the following languages :

Primary : Regional language-medium of instruction.

Middle : 2 languages—Regional and the official language.

Lower Secondary : 3 languages—Regional, official language and English.

Higher Secondary : 2 languages—Regional and one more.

Collegiate : Language will not be taught as compulsory.

It is admitted that the burden of three languages shall be a little heavy on the young students. But this has to be faced, on two considerations. *First*, the linguistic faculty is most active at the age group of 14-15 after which it tends to deteriorate. *Secondly*, the burden is worthwhile to be shouldered for the enrichment of the country's linguistic wealth, which remained neglected through centuries. This is, no doubt, a requirement of national importance.

CHAPTER 26

GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION IN ASSAM

Q. 1. What kind of social education is being provided today in Assam? Consider its adequacy and suggest reforms thereof by most economical means.

Ans. The concept of Social Education was not accepted by the Government until after independence. In Assam Social Education was first introduced as a private enterprise in 1939. The object was two-fold viz., Adult literacy and contribution of education of the adult literates.

After independence, when the principle of adult franchise was accepted in the Constitution of India the need for more comprehensive social education was felt. Accordingly, in Assam, provincial Mass Literacy Committee was formed with the Education Minister as the Chairman. Sub-divisional Committees were also formed in each sub-division with the Dy. Inspectors of Schools as the Secretary. The Committee launched a programme of adult education.

Social Education : In 1949-50 a Social Education

Scheme was formulated with a view to bringing about moral and material development of the adults in order to make them able members of the community and the democratic society. The main objects of the scheme are :

1. To impart a knowledge of the three R's to the adult illiterates.
2. To make them familiar with the principles of health and hygiene.
3. To teach them the values of a good citizenship.
4. To give them an economic efficiency by imparting training in better methods of vocation, e.g., agriculture and various craft works.
5. To give them training for a better cultural and social life by providing healthy recreations.

Education Department : The task of social education is now being directly conducted by the Education Department in Assam. There is a Social Education Section in the Directorate of Education under the D.P.I. The section is in direct charge of a Special Officer who is assisted by the District Social Education Organisers and Sub-Inspectors at the District and Sub-divisional levels.

The following programmes are carried out :

(i) **Literacy :** Night schools or night classes are carried on through out the State. These are known as "Jana-Siksha Kendra" or "Social Education Centres". Their programme consists of those courses in a year including a course on crafts. Each course lasts for three months. At the end of each course a test is taken and a "pass" certificate is given to the successful adults. Books, kerosene lamps and other materials are supplied by the Social Education Department. In 1963-64, there were 649 Social Education Centres with an enrolment of 19,904.

(ii) **Janasiksha programme :** Intensive campaign, is undertaken through broadcasting on interesting subjects, use of film-shows and slides. The Government has provided a number of mobile vans fitted with gramophones, radios,

projectors, films and other audiovisual aids. Through these aids an entertaining programme is arranged in different villages where talks on various subjects of community interest, viz., improved methods of agriculture, sanitation and hygiene, constitution and functions of the local authorities and State, Five-Year Plans etc. are given. The talks are made interesting with the audio-visual aids.

Mobile Libraries and Journals : Mobile libraries are sent around and the educated adults are given opportunities of reading current books. A bi-monthly journal known as 'janasiksha', is published from Guwahati.

Cultural activities : Exhibitions and fairs and staging of drama are organised to provide the adults with cultural entertainment. The local adults are encouraged to take part in such dramatical and musical programmes.

Problems : The idea of Social Education has not been restricted to adult-literacy, as it had been in earlier period. Attempts have been made to spread social education through a pleasing programme outside the barriers of the four walls of a class room. Yet, the progress in the field of social education in Assam has not been satisfactory. In 1955-56 the number of Adult Education Centres was 739, which decreased to 649 in 1963-64. The chief reason is the indifference of the average adult which results in an irregular attendance. There are also other problems, e.g., bad weather and bad communication, dearth of suitable teachers, shortage of funds, shortage of good books and teaching materials etc.

Reforms necessary : It is very difficult to strengthen the programme of Social Education with the present economic means, and under a competitive demand for other development programmes. Attempts may be directed to the following measures so as to solve the problems :

(1) Sustained efforts should be made to fulfil the targets of free and compulsory primary education. This will help to educate the children before they grow adults and ultimately reduce the problem of adult education.

(2) A special Board may be set up in the State to consider the problems of social education, to devise ways and means to resolve them and to advise the Government in suitable programmes.

(3) The education youths and students of the villages should be mobilised and utilise their vocations in holding night classes to adult people. The Extension Officer of the Development Blocks should organise this.

(4) Organisation of "Farmers, Club", "4-H Club" etc. should be encouraged by providing suitable amenities like books and literatures, cheap radio sets etc.

All these programmes will not require much additional finance and can be achieved by a sincere effort of the Block Development personnel.

Social Education Act : It has been an experience that in a backward country, much result is not gained towards any new attainment at the outset only through educative and persuasive measures. Some sort of compulsion is likely to bring the desired result. It is, therefore, necessary to promulgate a Social Education Act, under which an adult would be compelled to attend a Social Education Centre within a specified distance, on penalty of fine. The Act has to be drafted very carefully, keeping an eye to the personal and domestic commitments of the village people. While the time of attendance may be evening or night, the duration of attendance and the periods of the year should be suitably fixed up. The local bodies, viz., the Panchayets should be entrusted with certain duties and responsibilities in the matters of social education. The number of Social Education Centres should be increased in a phased programme so as to involve more and more adults under the purview of the Act.

Finance : The Board set up for the social Education should devise ways and means to find necessary additional funds. More Central assistance, contributions from local bodies, communities and individuals should be sought. An

educational tax may be levied for the purpose of primary and adult education.

Q. 2. What progress has been made in the field of women's education in Assam after 1947 ?

Ans. Introduction : At the time of independence of India in 1947, the position of women's education in Assam was not satisfactory. *First*, East India Company came to Assam late. *Secondly*, the Company did not think it wise to interfere with the social customs and traditions of the province, which did not favour women's education. Till recently education of girls was not viewed by the parents as seriously as the education of their boys. The census figures of 1951 indicates that only 9% of the women were literate. The figure increased to 16% by 1961. The unsatisfactory position is due to several factors. e.g., indifference of the Government in the past, social customs and prejudice like early marriage, lack of interest of parents etc., bad communication, absence of separate schools for girls, want of suitable teachers and so on.

After independence, many of the barriers were broken, and a remarkable progress has been achieved in the different fields of education, e.g., primary, secondary and collegiate, which are now discussed separately.

Primary education : At the primary stage the enrolment has increased considerably. The enrolment in 1965-66 was about 5.86 lakhs as against 9.12 lakhs in 1951-52. At the middle school stage the enrolment was .84 lakhs in 1963-64 as against .35 lakhs in 1955-56. The slow progress at the primary stage is also due to various factors indicated before, e.g., poverty of the parents, necessity of the girls in domestic works, absence of separate schools for girls etc.

Secondary education : At the secondary stage also the progress is satisfactory. The total enrolment of girls in age-group 14-17 was .44 lakhs in 1963-64 as against .27 lakhs in 1960. There were about 100 high schools for girls in 1964-65, of which 4 were government schools and the rest private. Many high schools also provide co-education. Even in the backward areas in the hills there is a number

of high schools for girls. Many of the high schools have recently been upgraded to Higher Secondary standard. Stipends are given by the State Government to girl students to study Home Science, Fine Arts, Music etc.

Collegiate education : At the collegiate level, increasing interest is being marked among the girls. Collegiate education for girls has also been receiving increased attention from the public and the Government. In 1946 there were only three girls' colleges in Assam. The number has now increased to eleven in nine districts. The enrolment in colleges in 1963 was 4645. The number has increased rapidly during the successive years.

Vocational education : Formerly, girls' education meant only study of humanities. But girls are now coming to take vocational educational including study of science. Many girls schools have now been converted to multipurpose ones with subjects like, Home Science, Music, Fine Arts. Girls are also taking up Science and Commerce in Higher Secondary Schools. Recently a girls' polytechnic has been started in Guwahati.

Post-Graduate education : Women of Assam are not largely behind in post-graduate studies. With the establishment of the Guwahati University in 1948, a large number of girls are taking up post-graduate studies. Appreciable demand for admission to courses in "Education" and "Bengali" from women students are noticed. Many girls were even refused admission due to limited number of seats. Girls are also coming in for studies in Engineering, Medicine, Law and other vocational studies and are joining those professions now.

State Council for women's education : Following the policy of the Govt. of India, a State Council for women's education has been formed in Assam in the matter of improvement and expansion of women's education in Assam. The following are some of the important steps recommended by the Council in 1963, towards the expansion of women's education in Assam :—

(1) For the expansion of primary education of women, there should be more women teachers, provision of free text books in rural areas, giving grants for building, providing more training facilities to women teachers etc. Education of girls should be made free up to class VI.

(2) At the secondary stage, the number of girls' schools should be increased with particular emphasis in the rural areas. Facilities of scholarships should be increased. In co-educational schools greater facilities should be given to the girls.

(3) One Higher Secondary School should be set up as a Provincial school at each sub-divisional headquarters.

(4) The terms of giving recognition and grants to girls' schools should be more liberal than those normally prescribed for boy's schools.

(5) An well-planned drive should be launched to enrol one lakh of girls students in the schools by 1966. and determined efforts should be made to achieve this larger.

(6) More training college for women teachers should be started.

(7) In the field of collegiate education, each district should have a Provincial Women's College with Arts and Science. Scholarships should be extended to all girl students having obtained first division in the School-leaving Examination.

(8) Liberal provision for post-graduate scholarship and foreign scholarship should be made.

(9) There should be a Lady Joint Director at the State Head-quarters to look after the education of women, and there should be an Assistant Inspectress at each Circle for supervision, control and management of girls' education in the Circle.

Conclusion : Notwithstanding the progress so far achieved, a wide gap between enrolment of the boys and the girls exists and should be reduced as early as possible by a sustained effort in the above lines as advised by the State

Commission. The problems are many and there is need for extending further facilities to women so that the desired expansion is possible.

Some of them are suggested below :

(1) To facilitate training of women teachers and their working in rural areas, proper accommodation and hostels should be provided.

(2) Hostels for girl students also are necessary in rural areas.

(3) In girls' colleges, Home-Science should be introduced.

(4) More employment-potential for girls should be created.

(5) Encouragement should be given to professional studies by liberal grant of stipends, and professional schools for girls should be opened.

Q. 99. Describe fully the spread of vocational education in Assam after 1947.

Or, Write notes on Technical education in Assam.

Ans. Prior to independence, Assam was backward in technical education. In 1947 there was only one technical institution at collegiate level, viz., the Prince of Wales Institute of Engineering and Technology, and 31 technical schools and industrial schools. After independence a concrete programme was taken by the Government of Assam for the expansion of technical and professional education in Assam. A noticeable progress was made in this direction during the three Five-Year Plans. A review of the progress in the field of professional education and of Technical and Engineering education are given below :—

Professional education : Prior to independence there were a number of commercial schools, one medical school at Dibrugarh and a survey school and a forest school at Jalukbari. A medical college and a veterinary college were also started after independence at Dibrugarh and Guwahati respectively. Two more medical colleges were subsequently established at Silchar and Guwahati.

The University Law College was existing from before independence. At present, there are three more law colleges at Jalukbari, Jorhat and Shillong. There is only one agricultural college established after independence. It has recently introduced post-graduate course. In the field of commerce there were a few schools and no college before 1947. Now there are 2 commercial colleges and 20 commercial schools.

Engineering and Technology : Encouraging progress was made in the field of engineering and technical education after independence. Much of the credit goes to the Department of Technical Education, created in the year 1958. Two Engineering Colleges were established in the year 1955 and 1960 at Jalukbari and Jorhat respectively. The Engineering College at Jalukbari was later developed to provide courses in mechanical and electrical engineering. There were two diploma institutions at Jorhat and Guwahati. These were also developed to provide Mechanical and Electrical courses. Besides, five Industrial Training Institutes were opened during the 2nd Five-year Plan to provide training in smithy, carpentry, fitting, welding, machine works, radio mechanism, electrical works etc. Seven more Industrial Training Institutes were started during the 3rd Five-year Plan. Besides, six junior technical schools were started to train the boys and girls as skilled workers so that they may join the Industries or enter the polytechnics. Two more polytechnics were also started at Dibrugarh and Shillong during the 3rd Five-year Plan.

Another Engineering college was established at Silchar. A separate polytechnic for girls was also opened at Guwahati. Stipends and scholarships have been provided for meritorious students for prosecuting technical studies abroad. Every year a number of students are sent abroad for study in higher engineering courses.

Miscellaneous : During the 2nd and 3rd Five-year Plans five B. T. Colleges were started at Guwahati, Shillong, Jorhat, Silchar and Nowgong. A Textile Institute has been

started at Guwahati to provide technical training in Calcutta in 1815, spinning, dyeing and printing. Serick propagating his weaving, schools at different places. Titabor also provides courses in weaving of Brahma-ism Cottage industries Training Centres have also been given to to give practical training in making cottage industries. an Roy in The three Medical College provide facilities of. believed of Nurses. images. valent

During the 3rd Plan, Rs. 4.31 crores were provided for vocational and technical education in Assam. Two Advisory Councils have been formed to advise the Government on the expansion of programme on technical and vocational Education. These are: the State Council for Technical Education, and the State Council for Training in vocational Trades.

Problems of Technical Education : The progress achieved in the field of technical education in Assam during the period after independence cannot be disregarded. At the same time the existing provisions have failed to meet the increasing demand for technical education. But unfortunately, the little progress in technical education has tended to create educated unemployment. This indicates that the expansion in the fields of technical education has not been undertaken with a careful planning with an eye to the need for industrial development of the State. While an unemployment of the Engineering graduates has already started, there is dearth of technicians in other fields like petroleum and tea Industries. The problem can be solved to a great extent by diverting a large number of students before the secondary stage to various technical and professional trade-training. At the same time, the industrial resources should be fully exploited to develop the State industrially. This will provide employment to the students coming out successfully from the technical institutions.

The next important problem lies in securing adequate efficient teachers for imparting training in the various technical and vocational courses. The field of higher education in different branches is limited and the technical persons

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started at Guwahati to provide technical education in weaving, spinning, dyeing and printing. Besides, there are weaving, schools at different places. Sericultural Institute at Titabor also provides courses in weaving and sericulture. Cottage industries Training Centres have also been set up to give practical training in making cottage industry products. The three Medical College provide facilities of training of Nurses.

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coming out, seek to go into any profession in preference to teaching. Thirdly, there is a lack of workshop practice in the institutes due to dearth of equipments. Among various other problems mention may be made of earth of text books in regional language, poverty of the parents and finance. It is hoped that by a sustained effort, with a proper planning, and with adequate co-ordination from the Industries, much of the problems can be solved in near future.

CHAPTER 27

EMINENT EDUCATIONISTS OF MODERN INDIA

Q. 1. Give a pen-picture of the life and work of Raja Rammohan Roy.

Ans. Raja Rammohan Roy (1772-1833) was the inaugurator of the Modern Age in India. He was born in a well-to-do Brahmin family at Radhanagar in the district of Hooghly of West Bengal. He was educated at home, learnt Persian, Arabic and Sanskrit in the early youth and began the study of English at the age of twenty-four. He was a great linguist to the formation of whose religious ideas the sacred books of the Mohemmedans, Hindus and Christians made considerable contribution. From about 1804 to 1814 he was employed in the Company's service of which the last five years (1809-1814) were spent at Rangpur as the *Seristadar* to the District Collector, Mr. Digby. There he established an association named Atmiya Sabha for discussion of religious matters. In 1814 Rammohan retired from Company's service and settled in Calcutta in 1815.

Already in 1813 Rammohan had published a pamphlet in Persian in which he protested against the idolatry and superstitions of all creeds. It was during his stay at Rangpur that his religious ideas began to get clearer and more

public expression and after his settlement in Calcutta in 1815 he began systematically and assiduously propagating his religious views which finally took the shape of Brahma-ism in 1828. Brahma Sabha was the popular name given to the theistic organisation founded by Raja Rammohan Roy in 1828. It was meant to be an assembly of all who believed in the unity of God and discarded the worship of images. Rammohan preached the unity of God, assailed the prevalent Hindu belief in many gods and in the elaborate ritualistic worship of their images and insisted that true Hinduism consisted, as was evident from the *Upanishads* and *Vedanta Sastra* in the recognition of one Formless True God to whom alone worship was to be rendered. Naturally, this doctrine, though supported by the Hindu scriptures themselves, roused a storm of indignant opposition among the orthodox Hindu community and Rammohan was subjected to social ostracism and other sorts of persecution. His religious views which insisted on unqualified unitarianism and discarded prophets and the Son of God as much as images, roused the hostile opposition of the Mohemmedans as well as of the conventional Christians. But Rammohan with the courage of conviction that was no characteristic of him, stuck to his faith and doctrine and refused to yield either to fear or to temptation neither of which was wanting. Rammohan, however, never denied that he was a Hindu. What he wanted to do was to reform Hinduism by remaining within its fold.

Rammohan was pre-eminently a rationalist and was against all social evils and wanted to end them. Thus he was opposed to caste distinctions, to polygamy, to the *Sati* or the system of burning widows on the funeral pyres of their dead husbands, to the degradation of women by keeping them in ignorance, the forced harsh rigorous of life imposed upon Hindu widows and the absence of a rational educational amongst the common people. He was a sturdy supporter of removal of all these social evils and his efforts met with considerable success especially in the field of education. Himself a profound scholar in Sanskrit, he was more than most of his contemporaries

awake to the need of expansion amongst the Indians of the knowledge of western languages, philosophy and science so that a new Indian people might grow up drawing the strength from a synthesis of the best of Western and Eastern knowledge.

Rammohan was also a pioneer amongst the Indians in the field of politics. An uncompromising love of freedom and an unlimited faith in the capacity of his countrymen to run the administration of their own country were the basic principles of his politics. He laid down the lines of political agitation in a constitutional manner and may thus be said to have sown the seeds of the future Indian National Congress. He submitted strong written protests in the form of petitions against the press regulations issued by the Governor-General, Lord Hastings, against the July Act of 1827 which denied to the Hindus and the Mohammedans alike the right of sitting on the Jury in the trial of Christians (European as well as Indian) while it allowed Christians to sit as jurors in the trial of Hindus and Mohammedans, against the Government proposal to tax rent-free lands, and against the prolongation of the monopoly rights and other privilege enjoyed by the East India Company in India. He also wanted to ameliorate the condition of the peasants by reducing the incidence of land tax on them and to promote the industrialisation of India by stopping the annual heavy economic drain to England caused by England's industrial superiority and political supremacy over India.

Rammohan's love of freedom and liberty knew no limitation of race, religion or region. He was as much pained as the failure of the revolution in Naples in 1821 as he was Jubilant over the successful Spanish American Revolution of 1823 and the Revolution in France in 1830. He watched with enthusiasm the progress of the reform movement in England from 1830 and was much pleased with the passing of the First Reform Act of 1832 when he happened to be personally present in England where he had gone at the close of 1830 to represent to be British

King and Parliament the grievances of the titular Mughal Emperor Akbar II, who invested him with the title of Raja. During the brief stay in England Raja Rammohan acted not only as the ambassador of Mughal Emperor to the British King but also as the ambassador of a New India to England and the Western world. He interpreted India to England by his writing and speeches. In his interviews with various persons of light and leading in England and France which he visited in 1832, he ably presented India's views and was warmly appreciated. All these exertions, however, proved too much for his health and he died at Bristol on September 27, 1833.

Rammohan was a prolific writer who wielded a facile pen in Persian, English and Bengali to the last of which his contributions were so important that he has been called the father of modern Bengali Prose. His *Sambad Kaumadi* also marked a turning point in the history of newspapers in India.

Q. 2. Write a note on Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar.

Ans. Pandit Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar (1820-91) was an eminent educationist and a social reformer. Born in a poor Brahmin family in the district of Midnapur in Bengal, he was educated in the Government Sanskrit College, Calcutta, where he became a professor in 1851 and from which he retired in 1853 as its Principal. Originally a Sanskrit scholar, he later on learnt English of which he became a master.

As early as 1847 he published his first English Prose Betal Panchavimsati which was followed by other Bengali Prose works which have earned for him the title of the father of Bengali Prose literature. He was an orthodox Hindu who refused to attend Government functions where his garb of *dhori*, *chaddar* and slippers were banned. But his ideals of social life were liberal and advanced and his greatest achievement was the legalisation by the British Government of the remarriage of Hindu widows in 1856.

Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar was a great personality, charitable, benevolent and unbending where self-respect was in question. He founded many schools and the Metropolitan College (new renamed after him the Vidyasagar College, Calcutta) where Hindu students might get higher education on payment of such small tuition fees as were payable by Muslim students in Government colleges as the results of the Mohsin endowments.

A Brahmin and a Sanskritist, Vidyasagar was an earnest advocate of western education in Bengal and was opposed to the reservation of the Government Sanskrit College exclusively for the study of Sanskrit. He was specially interested in the spread of education among the womenfolk and started at his own initiative and expense many educational institutions for them. In short, women education received great impetus and popularity by the ardent zeal and labour of Iswar Chandra. He also advocated the introduction of the study of Western philosophy and of the applied sciences in its curriculum so that his countrymen might not lag behind in materialistic knowledge. He was one of the towering personalities of Bengal who significantly contributed to its reawakening in the nineteenth Century.

Q. 3. Discuss, in brief, the contribution of Sir Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya in the field of education in India.

Ans. Sir Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya (1864-1924) was an eminent lawyer and educationist. Born of a middle-class Bengali Brahmin family in Calcutta, he had a distinguished academic record and began his career in 1888 as a *Vakil* practising in Calcutta High Court. He was raised to the Bench in 1904, officiated as the chief Justice of the Calcutta High Court in 1920 and retired from service in 1924. He took no part in politics, though he was a nominated member of the Bengal Legislative Council for a term from 1899, but he was certainly a maker of modern Bengal, if not of India, by virtue of his eminent services to the cause of education to which he practically dedicated all his life.

At the early age of 25 Ashutosh became a member of the Senate of the Calcutta University of which he later on became the Vice-Chancellor for five terms and with which he remained associated till the close of his life. He utilised the Indian Universities Act passed by Lord Curzon for throttling the progress of education in India, for the expansion of education in Bengal and for turning the Calcutta University from the mere examining body that it had so long been, into the greatest teaching University in India by inaugurating the Post-Graduate Department and for making provision for imparting the highest Post-Graduate teaching not only in different branches of humanities but also in the practical and applied sciences for the teaching of which there had been so far no provision.

Asutosh also secured for the University of Calcutta princely donations from the Maharaja of Darbhanga, Sir Taraknath Palit and Sir Rash Behari Ghosh, and utilised the money in constructing large buildings for the University Library and Science Colleges which were supplied with adequate laboratories. He thus gave a new turn to the education of the people. He also introduced the study of Bengali language for the highest degree examination of the M.A. and gave equal recognition to the other chief Indian languages.

He was a true Indian in his dress and manners and was the first Indian who as a member of a Royal Commission (Sadler Commission) travelled all over India dressed in *dhoti* and a *coat*. He had never been to England and showed in his life and activities how a true Indian could be Catholic in the ideas, progressive in his actions and internationalist in selection of the staff of the University. Englishmen, Germans and Americans not to speak of Indians from all over the country, were invited by him to occupy chairs in the Calcutta University which he raised to the premier University in the East.

Q. 4. What is the contribution of Sir Syed Ahmed Khan in the field of education in India?

Ans. Sir Syed Ahmed Khan (1815-1898) was a promi-

nent leader of the Indian Mohemmedans. Born in Delhi he began his career in the service of the British in India in 1837 and rose to the rank of a subordinate judge. He retired from Government service in 1876 and devoted the remaining twenty-two years of his life to the service and uplift of the Mohemmedans in India.

Sir Syed Ahmed Khan remained loyal to the British during the Sepoy Mutiny and had a lively appreciation of the values of Western Culture. He, therefore, devoted himself mainly in the task of propagating English education among the Indian Muslims and founded in 1875 the Mohemmedan Anglo-Oriental College at Aligarh which aimed at securing a balance between Islamic and European learning.

In 190 Mohemmedan Anglo-Oriental College was raised by the Government of India to the status of a University, called the Aligarh Muslim University. It has produced many talented young Muslim graduates of great ability and erudition. Sir Syed Ahmed Khan was, however, first a Mohemmedan, and then only an Indian. He thought that the Muslim of India, were a people separate from the Hindus and must not be absorbed by them or united with them. He therefore, asked the Indian Muslims to shun the Indian National Congress on account of the Hindu preponderance there. In fact, though, Sir Syed Ahmed Khan did much to improve the condition of the Mohemmedans in India, he did very little for India as a whole.

Q. 5. Discuss the educational ideas of Rabindranath Tagore.

Ans. Rabindranath Tagore (1861-1941) was the greatest Indian poet in modern times and one of the greatest poets ever born. He was a son of Maharshi Devendranath Tagore and was born in Calcutta where he breathed his last after gaining an international reputation and respect as the Gurudeva (the Preceptor). Rabindranath was a versatile genius who excelled not only as a poet but also as a dramatist, novelist, essayist and in later life even as an artist. The publication of an English translation of his Gitanjali (offerings of songs) won him the Nobel Prize in 1913.

Pre-eminent as a poet, Rabindranath was no recluse. He was intensely patriotic and well in the forefront of the Swadeshi Movement, though he disliked boycott. For his patriotism was based not on selfish nationalism but on Catholic internationalism. He encouraged indigenous industries, rural reconstruction of which the Sreeniketan which he found near Santiniketan was an example, as well as popular education, folk-songs and dances, indigenous arts and crafts and the co-operative movement. He generally kept himself aloof from the hectic political agitation of the day but was never afraid of raising his stentorian voice in protest whenever the alien Government in India took to unreasonably harsh repressive measures. He gave voice to the pent-up feelings of millions of Indians by resigning the knighthood that the British Government had conferred on him as a protest against the massacre perpetrated by the British at Jalianwallabagh in 1919. His action was the severest condemnation of the British system of administration in India.

But Rabindranath's greatest contribution to human culture was the foundation of the Viswa Bharati in 1901 without any financial support from the Government of the time. Rabindranath maintained the unique seat of world culture out of the proceeds of the sale of his books and other personal income for fifty years. Rabindranath maintained it as a centre of world culture specialising in the humanities. Viswa Bharati has been taken up by the Government of the Republic of India in 1951 and it is now a centrally administered University.

Rabindranath believed that education helps a man to attain perfectness and his ideals have been put into practice by the system of education which has been introduced in Viswa Bharati. Viswa Bharati still tries to maintain this ideal as far as practicable.

OBJECTIVE-TYPE QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q. 1. Mention the names of some important persons from amongst the founders of the Hindu Vidyalaya or Hindu school.

Ans. Hindu Vidyalaya or school was established in Calcutta on 20th January, 1817, by the efforts of some prominent Hindus like Radhakanta Deva, Ramkamal Sen, Baidyanath Mukhopadhyaya and of David Hare, Hyde East, Francis Irvin etc. for the propagating of English education amongst the children of the Hindus.

Q. 2. Who had formed the Academic Association and when?

Ans. The Academic Association was founded by the disciples of Henry Louis Vivian Derozio in 1826. Its prominent members were Ramtanu Lahiri, Radhanath Sikdar, Krishnamohan Bandopadhyaya, Ramgopal Ghosh, Rasik Krishna Mallik, Dakshina Ranjan Mukhopadhyaya etc.

Q. 3. Write correctly the full names of the Serampore Trio.

Ans. William Carey, William Ward and Joshua Marshman are known as the Serampur Trio. Carey was a great writer. Marshman was a good teacher and was expert in printing. The full co-ordination and co-operation of these three gentleman made the Serampore Mission a centre of culture and learning and Bengali literature began to flourish by their patronage.

Q. 4. Write the name of the first Bengali newspaper.

Ans. Samachar-darpana (Mirror of News) was the first Bengali newspaper. The first issue of the Samachar-darpana was published on 10th Jyaishta 1225 B. S. corresponding to May 23, 1818. It was to be published every Saturday morning and the price was fixed at Rs. 18 per month.

Joshua Marshman was the nominal editor of the paper, but it was actually conducted by Bengali Pandits among whom Joygopal Tarkalankar and Tarini Charan Shiromani deserve special mention.

Q. 5. Why was Rammohan's religion known as Brahmin ?

Ans. Rammohan's religious idea stood for monotheism on a non-sectarian basis and based on the principles of 'Brahma' derived from the Upanishads, therefore, his religion is known as Brahmaism (Brahma).

Q. 6. Write the full name of Derozio.

Ans. The full name of Derozio was Henry Louis Vivian Derozio.

Q. 7. What is the origin of the Brahmo Movement ?

Ans. Brahma Movement had its origin in the Brahma Sabha started by Raja Rammohan Roy in 1828.

Q. 8. What were the objectives of Bhagawat Chatuspathi ?

Ans. In 1895 Satish Chandra Mukhopadhyaya established Bhagawat Chatuspathi to remove the incompleteness of the modern system of education and to revive the traditional system of education. He also wanted to make a synthesis between the oriental and western system of education.

Q. 9. Write the name of a European gentleman who made selfless donations to the cause of education of the Bengalees.

Ans. David Hare was one of the few non-official liberal Englishmen resident in India who devoted their time and energy to the welfare of the Indians. David Hare was specially interested in the spread of Western education in India.

Q. 10. When and why was the National Council of Education formed ?

Ans. National Council of Education was formed in Calcutta on 11th March, 1906, at a public meeting presided over by the first Indian Civilian, Satyendra Nath Tagore.

Q. 11. The system of education patronised by the National Council of Education was a part of the Boycott Movement organised during the First Partition of Bengal in 1905.

Q. 11. Who was Macaulay ? What was his full name ?

Ans. The full name of Macaulay was Thomas Babington Macaulay. He was a renowned English poet, essayist, historian and politician. In 1834 he came to India as the first Law Member of the Governor-General's Executive Council and subsequently become the President of the Education Committee.

Q. 12. Mention the subject streams of the Higher Secondary Education Curriculum established in pursuance of the Mudaliar recommendations.

Ans. The seven streams proposed by the Mudaliar Commission are : Humanities, Science, Technical education, Agricultural Science, Commerce, Homo Science and Fine Arts.

Q. 13. When was the Radhakrishnan Commission appointed ?

Ans. In 1948 the Government of India appointed a University Commission under the chairmanship of Dr. Sarvapalli Radhakrishnan. It submitted its report in 1949.

Q. 14. How long had the Kothari Commission worked ?

Ans. For the discussion and recommendation of different types of education, the Kothari Commission worked from 1964 to 1966.

Q. 15. What is meant by affiliating type of University ?

Ans. Affiliating type of University is that which can recommend the subjects and method of teaching to colleges. These colleges are practically under the jurisdiction of the affiliating university.

Q. 16. Mention the memorable contribution of Sir Syed Ahmed.

Ans. The most memorable contribution of Sir Syed Ahmed is the foundation of the Muhammedan Anglo-Oriental College at Aligarh in 1875, which denied at securing a balance between Islamic and European learning. In 1920 the college was raised to the status of University by the Government of India and it became known as the Aligarh Muslim University.

Q. 17. How many Universities are there in West Bengal ?

Ans. At present there are eight universities in West Bengal. They are : Calcutta, Jadavpur, Burdwan, North-Bengal, Midnapur Vidyasagar University, Kalyani, Viswa-Bharati and Rabindrabharati.

Q. 18. What is difference between I.I.T. and I.T.I. ?

Ans. The short name of Indian Institute of Technology is I. I. T. Five national institutions at Bombay, Kanpur, Kharagpur, Madras and New Delhi, known as Indian Institute of Technology, provide facilities for higher level education and research in engineering and technology.

The Industrial Training Institutes are established on the recommendations of Mr. Abbot Wood is known in short as I. T. I.

Q. 19. Which education commission has proposed for rural universities ?

Ans. The Radhakrishnan Commission (1948) recommended the establishment of rural universities with Santiniketan and Jamia Milia as their model.

Q. 20. Who was the first Indian Vice-Chancellor of the University of Calcutta ?

Ans. Sir Gurudas Bandyopadhyay was the first Indian Vice-Chancellor of the University of Calcutta.

He was appointed Vice-Chancellor of the University of Calcutta in 1890.

Q. 21. In which part of the Indian Constitution has Universal Primary education referred to ?

Ans. Indian Constitution has provided the citizen to have the universal right of primary education. It has been provided in the Directive Principles of the Constitution and in the Articles Nos. 45 and 46 in the Chapter of Rights granted to the citizens.

Q. 22. To which Government the responsibility of universal primary education has been imposed by the Constitution of India ?

Ans. The Constitution of India has imposed the responsibility of universal primary education on the State Government.

Q. 23. Mention the objectives and the main initiators of the Tattwabodhini Sabha and Patrika.

Ans. Devendra Nath Tagore founded the Tattwabodhini Sabha for the improvement in education, research and religious discoveries. But for his close connection with the Brahma Sabha the association came to be known as Tattwabodhini. Devendranath also founded the famous journal Tattwabodhini Patrika in 1843 through which he promoted serious thinking and earnest speaking amongst the children of the soil, emphasised the need of developing the mother tongue, the need of studying science and theology, opposed prevailing superstitions and social evils. Akshoy Kumar Dutta assisted him to the publication of the paper.

Q. 24. What is meant by Macaulay Minute?

Ans. For the solution of the conflict between the Anglicists and the Orientalists on the question of the system of education to be introduced in India, Lord William Bentinck referred the issue to Macaulay. Macaulay submitted his considered view on the issue to the Government on February 2, 1835, which is known as Macaulay Minute. In his Minute Macaulay recommended for the western system of education.

Q. 25. What do you know of Macaulay?

Ans. Macaulay was a mixture of Benthamite theory of legislation and Evangelical vehemence in sentiment. His Minute on Education was brilliant, though he tried to disguise the thinness of his legal reason by taking refuge in bold and emphatic rhetoric. His main thesis was that all the learning of the East was nothing besides the metaphysics of Locke and Physics of Newton, and that it was only the torch of western learning that could illumine the Indian mind, submerged in superstition and ignorance. His view of an Indian society reflected utilitarian contempt for oriental civilisation and his Minute reads like James Mill's composition. He advocated a root and branch policy to sweep away

everything of the past and write of afresh. Macaulay pointed out that English books in India were much in demand whereas Sanskrit and Arabic books found practically no purchasers. His object was to form a class of persons, Indian in blood and in colour, but English in tastes, in opinions and in morals and in intellect. The orientalist led by Prinsep, thought it impracticable to make English the language of the people, and were of the opinion that the introduction of English would upset the existing arrangements and kill vernaculars. They urged that the stuff might be in a greater degree European, but must in all cases be interwoven with-home spun material. Macaulay, on the other-hand, pointed out the plight of those students passed from Sanskrit College was found no employment anywhere, and considered that dialects had no value. Macaulay passed his Minute on to Bentinck and made the whole problem clearer and more intelligible than ever before and created a peculiar situation when solution could no longer be postponed. Bentinck grasped the reality and intensity of the situation and gave the entire concurrence to the sentiments expressed in Macaulay's Minute.

But Macaulay was not the herald of the dawn. His thesis merely confirmed Bentinck's opinions who issued his Resolution of the 7th March 1835, which stated, "The great object of the British Government ought to be the promotion of European literature and science among the natives of India ; and that all the funds appropriated for the purpose of education would be best employed in English education alone.

Q. 26. What do you know of the Radha Krishnan Commission ?

Ans. In 1948 the Government of India appointed a University Commission under the Chairmanship of Dr. Sarvapalli Radhakrishnan. Its terms of reference were comprehensive. The Commission submitted a detailed report in 1949. The Commission recommended the establishment of rural universities with Santiniketan and Jamia Milia as their model. It criticised the allocation of inadequate funds

for education. Money for education was not to be less than 5 per cent of the total revenue. The number of scholarships and stipends was to be increased to help the poor. The colleges were not to be allowed to admit more than 1000 students. Where the mother tongue was not as the same as the federal language, the federal language was to be the medium of instruction. If the mother tongue and federal language was identical, the students were required to take any other Indian classical or Modern language. There was to be no hasty attempt at the replacement of English as a medium of instruction for academic standards. But the Commission did not prescribe any time limit. There were to be no denominational or sectarian or religious considerations. Co-education was to be adopted in the secondary stage and then again in the college stage. A considerable stress was put on the improvement of the standards of the teaching profession. There were to be four classes of teachers and promotion from one another was to be solely on the basis of merit.

Q. 27. What do you know of the University Grants Commission ?

Ans. In 1956 the Indian Parliament passed the University Grants Commission Act. It provided for the appointment of a University Grants Commission by the Union Government. The nine members of the Commission were to be appointed the Central Government. Every member was to hold office for a period of 6 years. The Chairman of the Commission was to be appointed by the Central Government and his job was to be a whole time job carrying a salary. The Commission was to meet at different places. It is the general duty of the Commission to take all such steps as it may think fit for the promotion and co-ordination of University education, for the determination and maintenance of standards of teaching, examination and research in universities. The Commission can enquire into the financial needs of the University, allocate and disburse grants to University, recommend to any University the measures necessary for the improvement of University education and advise the Univer-

sity upon the action to be taken for the purpose of implementing such recommendations, advise the Central Government on any State Government on the allocation of any grants to Universities for any general of specified purpose. The Commission has to collect information on all matters relating to University education in India and other countries as it thinks fit and to make the same available to any University, require a University to furnish it with such information as may be needed to the financial position of the University and perform such other functions which are considered necessary by the Commission for the advancing the cause of higher education in India. In order to find out the financial needs of a University and its teaching, examination and research standards, the Commission can after consultation with the University, cause an inspection of any Department or Departments to be made. If a University does not comply with the recommendations of the Commission, the latter can withhold its grants to the University.

Q. 28. Write a note on the Hunter Commission.

Ans. In 1882, Lord Ripon appointed a Commission to enquire into the manner in which effect had been given to the principles of the Despatch of 1854 and to suggest such measures as it may think desirable in order to further carrying out of the policy there in down. The Commission made its recommendations. While advocating the gradual withdrawal of the state from the direct support and management of institutions of higher education, the Commission felt that the withdrawal could only be by slow and cautious steps. A College or Secondary School was to be handed over to the Indians only if there was a reasonable prospect that the cause of education would not suffer as a result of the transfer. Provision was to be made for ordinary and special grants to colleges. There was to be alternative courses in big colleges. Certain general principles were to be followed as regards college fees and exemption from them. New regulations regarding scholarships were to be framed. An attempt was to be made to prepare a model text book based upon the fundamental principles of national religion. In all schools

and colleges, lectures were to be given to the students on the duties of a man and a citizen. Special measures were to be adopted for the encouragement of education among the Muhammedans. All elementary schools were to be inspected and supervised by the educational officers of the Government. Emphasis was put on physical and mental education of the students. The Commission felt that primary education needed strongest encouragement by the Government. A part of the Provincial revenues should be exclusively reserved for primary education. Primary education should be given by the state District Boards and municipalities. Secondary education was to be encouraged through local or private bodies. All secondary schools were made over to private management wherever that was possible.

Q. 29. What is known as the "Magna Carta of English education in India"?

Ans. In 1864, Sir Charles Wood, President of the Board of Control, sent a Despatch to the Court of Directors and it has been described as the Magna Carta of English education in India.

Q. 30. What proposals were embodied in Wood Despatch on education?

Ans. Wood's Despatch embodied the following proposals:

(a) It enunciated the aim of education as the diffusion of arts, science, philosophy and literature of Europe. The study of Indian languages was to be encouraged. The English was to be taught wherever there was a demand for it. Both English and the Indian languages were to be used as media for the diffusion of the European knowledge.

(b) The Despatch also recommended the establishment of universities in India. The universities were to be established on the model of the London University.

Each University was to consist of Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor and a Senate. The institution affiliated to the University were to be periodically visited by Government inspectors.

(c) Institutions for the training of teachers for all classes of schools were to be established.

(d) The existing Government and Colleges were to be maintained and their number was to be increased if and when necessary.

(e) New Middle Schools were to be established.

(f) More attention was to be given to elementary education.

(g) The system of Grants-in-Aid was to be started by the Government to help private enterprise. Those grants were to be given on the principle of religious neutrality.

(h) A comprehensive system of scholarships was to be started.

(i) Female education was to be encouraged by the Government.

(j) A Director of Public Instruction was to be appointed in every province. He was to be assisted by Inspectors and Assistant or Deputy Inspectors.

Q. 31. When was provided a Government resolution for public employment in every case, preference would be given to those who had been educated in Western science and familiar with the English language?

Ans. In 1844.

Q. 32. What do you know of the contribution of Christian Missions in the field of education?

Ans. A lot of work was done by the Christian Missions in the field of education. In 1716, the Danish Missionaries opened an institution for the training of teachers. In 1717, they opened two charity schools at Madras. They opened English school at other places also. Missionaries like Carey, Marshman and Ward started their work at Serampur in 1793. In 1820, the missionary societies were doing a lot of work in this field but their primary object was not to teach people but to preach Christianity. The Missionaries were of the view that the spread of English language would help the

spread of Christianity in the country. In Bombay was started the Wilson College and in Madras the Christian College. In 1853, they started the Saint John's College, Agra. Missionary Colleges were also founded at Masaulipatam and Nagpur. The Bible classes were made compulsory in these institutions.

Q. 33. What was the content of the resolution adopted by the Government of India on March 7, 1835, about the educational policy in the country ?

Ans. The resolution passed on March 7, 1835, provided that the great object of the British Government ought to be the promotion of European literature and science among the natives of India and that all funds appropriated for the purposes of education will be best employed on English education alone. While the colleges of oriental learning were not to be abolished, the practice of supporting their students during the period of education was to be discontinued. The Government funds were not to be spent on the printing of oriental works. All the funds at the disposal would in future be spent in imparting to the Indians a knowledge of English literature and science.

Q. 34. What were the aspects of boycott under the Triple boycott scheme ?

Ans. The national system of education was the third item in the constructive programme adopted by the nationalists in Bengal in protest against the partition, the two other items being Swadeshi (use of indigenous products and boycott of foreign especially of British goods.)

Q. 35. Which was the first educational institution founded by the National Council of education.

Ans. The first educational institution founded by the council was the Bengal National College and School in August 1906 with Aravinda Ghosh as the first Principal.

This institution adopted elaborate syllabus in humanities as well as sciences and technology.

Q. 36. How was the Bengal National College and Technical School founded ?

Ans. The National Council of Education established the Bengal National College and School in 1906. But the aims and prospects of the council were hampered by the existence of a rival body sponsored by Sir Taraknath Palit which wanted to concentrate on technical education alone and founded the Bengal Technical Institute in Calcutta and by the open disfavour of the Government, which gave no recognition to the alumni of the Bengal National College and School. The Bengal Technical Institute and Bengal National College and School were merged together on 25th May 1910 and the united institution came to be known as the Bengal National College and Technical School.

Q. 37. What are the achievements of the National Council of Education?

Ans. The object of the National Council of Education was to impart education—literary as well as scientific and technical on national lines and exclusively under national control, not in opposition to, but standing apart from the existing systems of Primary, Secondary and University Education. But the efforts of the council to attract a sufficiently large number of students to the Arts section to the College met with a failure. The Council, therefore, abolished the Arts side of the Bengal National College and also helplessly witnessed the abolition of the various 'National Schools' that it had established outside Calcutta.

The Council, however, developed the Technical side of the Bengal National College and Technical Institute into the Jadavpur College of Engineering and Technology which attracted a growing number of students from all over India and eventually the council had the satisfaction of seeing the child to develop into the Jadavpur University which not only teaches different branches of technology and engineering, but also the general fundamental sciences as well as different branches of humanistic studies.

Q. 38. Name the Indian member who was included in the Sadler Commission?

Ans. Sir Ashutosh Mukhopadhyaya.

Q. 39. What do you know of the Raleigh Commission ?

Ans. In January 1902, Lord Curzon appointed a Commission presided over by Mr. Raleigh to enquire into the conditions and prospects of the universities established in British India, to consider the report upon any proposals which may have been or may be made for improving their construction and working and is recommend such measures as may tend to elevate the standard University of teaching and to promote the advancement of learning. The Commission recommended that the powers of the order universities should be enlarged and all universities be recognised as teaching bodies. The local limits of each University were to be accurately defined. The Senate, Syndicate and Faculties were to be reorganised and made more representative than before. The affiliation rules were to be framed in such a way that no institution was admitted to affiliation unless it satisfied certain standards of efficiency. There were to be properly constituted governing bodies for each college. Attention was to be paid to residence and discipline of students. The courses and methods of examination in all subjects were to be changed according to the suggestions made in the report.

The recommendations of the Raleigh Commission were accepted by the Government and embodied in the universities Act of 1904.

Q. 40. What do you know of Elphinstone's contribution for the spread of English education in India ?

Ans. In his Minute of 1823. Mountstuart Elphinstone, Governor of Bombay, urged the establishment of schools for teaching English and European sciences. He proposed the establishment of a school at Bombay where English might be taught classically and where instruction might also be given in that language on history and geography and science. In 1833 he set up a similar school at Pune. In 1834 was started the Elphinstone College at Bombay. It was expected to train a class of persons qualified by their intelligence and morality for high employment in the civil administration of India.

Q. 41. Name the members of the Raleigh Commission.

Ans. The Commission was presided over by Mr. (afterwards Sir) Thomas Raleigh, Legal Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council. The members included Mr. Syed Hussain Bulgrami, Director of Public Instruction in the Nizam's dominions and when the Hindu Community complained that it was unrepresented, Mr. Justice Gurudas Bando-padhyaya, a Judge of the Calcutta High Court, was added to the Commission.

Q. 42. When and by whom Calcutta Madrasha was founded?

Ans. Calcutta Madrasha was founded in 1781 by Warren Hastings, who was the then Governor-General. It has since been a very important centre of Oriental (Persian and Arabic) studies in India. Warren Hastings established the Calcutta Madrasha to qualify the sons of Mohammedan gentlemen for responsible and lucrative offices in the state.

Q. 43. When and by whom Calcutta Medical College was established?

Ans. Calcutta Medical College founded in March, 1835, by William Bentinck, who was then the Governor-General, marked the beginning of the study and practice of the medical science in India.

Q. 44. What do you know of the School Book Society?

Ans. The School Book Society was established in Calcutta in 1817 mainly by the efforts of Mr. Hyde East, the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Calcutta. The object of the Society was to make available good text books, both in English and in Indian languages, available for schools. The Society undertook to prepare such text books and to print and publish them. They were sold at a cheap price and sometimes distributed free. The publication of religious books was beyond its purview.

Q. 45. What do you know of David Hare.

Ans. David Hare (1775-1842) was one of the few non-Edu—21

official liberal Englishman resident in India who devoted their time and energy to the welfare of the Indians. He was specially interested in the spread of western education in India. A watch-maker by profession and a Scott by birth, he came to Calcutta in 1800 and acquired a competence before he made over his business to a relative in 1816 and devoted himself entirely to philanthropic works amongst the Indian population in Calcutta. He took a leading part in imitating the scheme of establishing an English School in Calcutta and it was largely due to his efforts that the Hindu College was opened on January 20, 1817. A few days later David Hare associated himself with the School Book Society which was founded for printing and publishing English and Bengali books. He also worked hard for the repeal of the Regulation against the Press which bore fruit during the administration of Charles Metcalfe in 1835.

David Hare died of cholera in Calcutta in 1842. His philanthropy, benevolence and liberalism had so impressed the people of Calcutta that they erected by public subscription his life-size marble statue which is situated at a central place in Calcutta where he is also commemorated by a school which bears his name.

Q. 46. What do you know of the foundation of the Hindu College ?

Ans. The most important institution that helped the spread of English education in Bengal was the Hindu College, established in Calcutta on January 20, 1817.

It appears that about the beginning of May, 1816, a Brahmin Calcutta (probably Baidyanath Mukherjee) saw Sir Hyde East, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Calcutta, and informed him that many of the leading Hindu were desirous of forming an establishment for the education of their children in a liberal manner as practised by Europeans, and desired him to hold meeting for this purpose. Accordingly Sir Hyde East, with the permission of the Governor-General and the Supreme Council, called a meeting at his house on May 14, 1816 at which fifty and upwards of the

most respectable Hindu inhabitants of rank or wealth attended, including also the principal Pandits, when subscribed and many more subscriptions were promised.

The meeting decided to establish a college, housed in its own building, with the object of teaching Bengali, Hindusthani and English languages, and then Persian, if desired; arithmetic, history, geography, astronomy, mathematics and in time as the fund increases, English belles-letters, poetry etc. Stress was also to be laid on teaching the English system of morals.

Q. 47. What were the aims and objects of the Academic Association or Institution?

Ans. The Academic Association or Institution was established under the inspiration of Derozio. The subjects discussed in the Association included the following:

"Free will, free ordination, fate, faith, the sacredness of truth, the high duty of cultivating virtue, the meanness of vice, the nobility of patriotism, the attributes of God, and the arguments for and against the existence of the Deity, as these have been set forth by Hume on the one side and Reid, Dugald Stewart and Brown on the other, the hollowness of idolatry and the shams of the priesthood.

Q. 48. When did the students of the Hindu College start the "Society for the Acquisition of General Knowledge"?

Ans. Society for the Acquisition of General Knowledge was established in 1838.

Its main object was to acquire and disseminate useful knowledge about the condition of the country.

Q. 49. Who did establish the Hindu Theophilanthropic Society?

Ans. The Derozians started the Hindu Theophilanthropic Society under the inspiration of Dr. Duff.

Q. 50. Name the Magazines started by the students of the Hindu College Students.

Ans. The Hindu College students published several

magazines during the period from 1828 to 1843. These were :

The Parthenon (1830); Gyananweshan (1831-1849); Hindu Pioneer (1838) and The Bengali Spectator (1842).

Three other papers were run by the Derozians, these are : The Hesperous, Inquirer and The Quill.

These magazines dealt in a general way with the condition of the country, science of politics, science of government and jurisprudence, European colonisation in India, female education etc. The Hindu Pioneer published articles on 'Freedom', "India under Foreigners" and the like.

Q. 51. When and by whom the Sanskrit College at Beneres was started ?

Ans. The Sanskrit College at Beneres was founded in 1791 by Jonathan Duncan, Resident at Beneres, for the preservation and cultivation of the laws, literature and religion of the Hindus.

Q. 52. Name some of the British people who encouraged the spread of education in India.

Ans. Sir John Shore, Charles Grant, William Welberforce and Henry Thornton dedicated to the cause of education in India.

Q. 53. For the first time, in which Charter, a sum of money was sanctioned by the British Parliament for the cause of education in India ?

Ans. By the Charter of 1813 granted to the East India Company it was decided to set apart one lakh of rupees a year out of the Indian revenue for the encouragement of the learned natives of India and for the introduction of a knowledge of European sciences among the people.

Q. 54. When was the Sanskrit College established at Calcutta ?

Ans. In 1823 the Sanskrit College was established at Calcutta by Lord Amherst.

Q. 55. When was there an attempt to establish a university in Calcutta for the first time ?

Ans. In 1845, the Council of Education in Calcutta under the Presidentship of Charles Hay Cameron, drew up a plan for a university in Calcutta. But it could not be implemented probably because it was discountenanced by the authorities in England.

Q. 56. When was the Committee of Public Instruction in Bengal replaced by the Council of Education ?

Ans. In 1842—1843.

Q. 57. In which year was the Asiatic Society of Bengal founded and who was the initiator ?

Ans. Asiatic Society of Bengal, an association of the learned men especially interested in Oriental Studies, was founded in Calcutta on January 15, 1784 by William Jones, supported by Warren Hastings, Governor-General of India. After the Sepoy Mutiny and the transfer of power from the Company to the crown of England, it came to be known as the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal. But after 1947 it has come again to be known by its old name of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

Q. 58. Who was the founder of the Academic Association ? What was its function ?

Ans. Henry Louis Vivian Derozio was the founder of the Academic Association. It was mainly a debating society, where religion, patriotism, social manners and customs, politics and other allied subjects were discussed. The members of the 'Young Bengal' regularly participated in the discussions.

Q. 59. Mention the two names at least two of leaders of the Young Bengal and two papers founded as their organs.

Ans. Leaders of the Young Bengal : Ramtanu Lahiri, Krishnamohan Bandopadhyaya, Rasik Krishna Mallik, Radhanath Sikdar, Ramgopal Ghosh, Dakshina Ranjan Mukhopadhyaya etc.

Magazines published by the Young Bengal.

'The Enquirer', 'Gnananweshan' etc.

Institutions founded by Young Bengal : Calcutta Public Library, Sarbatatwa Dipika Sabha etc.

Q. 60. What was the name of the college founded in 1830 by Alexander Duff ? What is the present name of the institution ?

Ans. Rev. Alexander Duff, a Scottish Presbyterian missionary was in Calcutta from 1830—1863. He was sent by the Church of Scotland presumably in pursuance of a request made to it by Raja Rammohan Roy in 1823 for sending out to India competent teachers to spread English education. He was warmly welcomed by the Raja and it was with his help that he started an English School as the General Assembly Institution soon after his arrival in Calcutta in 1830. In course of time the school developed into a college and is known as the Scottish Church College.

Q. 61. Who founded the Tattabodhini Patrika and why ?

Ans. In 1843 Maharshi Devendranath Tagore founded the Tattabodhini Patrika.

Through this famous journal Devendranath promoted serious thinking and earnest speaking amongst the children of the soil, emphasised the need of developing the mother-tongue, the need of studying science and theology, opposed prevailing superstitions and social evils and waged an unrelenting war against the proselytising activities of the Christian missionaries.

Q. 62. Write a short note on 'Young Bengal'.

Ans. Young Bengal is the designation that was collectively given by contemporaries to the students of Henry Louis Vivian Derozio. The Young students of Hindu College who were all Hindus, were encouraged by Derozio to be free thinkers, "to live and die for truth—to cultivate and practise all virtues, shunning vice in every shape". In effect their free thinking and excessive admiration for western culture and literature made them immature rebels against the existing

social and religious structure of Hindu Society. Their uppermost thought was to expose Hinduism and some of them even renounced it and made it a public exhibition of their free thinking by taking beef and drinking wine even in public place. They also started journals and formed learned association for propagating their news. The exuberance on the part of young Bengal alarmed their guardians and the older section of the Hindu Community of Calcutta and Derozio's service was terminated in 1831. But his students known as the Derozians or Young Bengal continued to be a force in Bengali society promoting political consciousness among the public, welcoming the foundation of the Medical College in Calcutta in 1835 for the encouragement and practice of the western medical science in India, encouraging the foundation of public libraries and schools for the propagation of education amongst the people supporting the movement for the freedom of the Press and advocating social reforms like the abolition of Sati. But the young Bengal which contributed much to the renaissance in Bengal in the 19th century failed to build a sustained movement and to develop an ideology, to appreciate the necessity of effecting a synthesis between the western and eastern cultures and to temper reasoning and intelligence with moderation and understanding. It proved ephemeral and unsubstantial and faded away slowly by the middle of the nineteenth century.

Q. 63. When was the Mudaliar Commission appointed ?

Ans. On the advice of the Central Advisory Board of Education, the Government of India, appointed the Secondary Education Commission under the Chairmanship of Dr. A. L. Mudaliar in 1952. It worked upto 1953. The Commission is popularly known as the Mudaliar Commission.

Q. 64. What was the objects of the Government to set up the Mudaliar Commission ?

Ans. The Government desired to change over from the prevailing system of Secondary Education which is unilateral and predominantly academic in nature to a new system which will enter to the Secondary stage for different aptitudes and interests.

Q. 65. Who surveyed the indigenous education in Bengal in early 18th century? In which years were his reports submitted?

Ans. Scottish missionary Rev. William Adam surveyed the indigenous education in Bengal in the early 19th century at his own will.

He submitted three reports on indigenous education in Bengal. The first and second reports were submitted in 1835 and the third one was submitted in 1838.

Q. 66. Who was the first Indian Vice-Chancellor of Calcutta University? In which year he was installed?

Ans. Sir Gurudas Bandopadhyaya was the first Vice-Chancellor of the University of Calcutta. He was appointed to the post in 1890.

Q. 67. Why was National Council of Education established?

Ans. The National Council of Education was founded in Calcutta on 11 March, 1905. It was the result of an urge roused by the partition of Bengal in 1905 and was the third item in the constructive programme adopted by the nationalists in Bengal in protest against the partition. Its object was to impart Education—literary as well as scientific and technical on national lines and exclusively under national control, not in opposition to, but standing apart from the existing systems of Primary, Secondary and University education.

Q. 68. Who founded the Bolepur Brahmacharya Ashram and when?

Ans. Rabindranath Tagore founded the Bolepur Brahmacharya Ashram in 1901. Through this institution, he wanted to impart to the students education in the true sense of the term.

Q. 69. Mention the names of three front ranking leaders of the National Education Movement.

Ans. Rashbehari Ghosh, Aravinda Ghosh and Subodh

Chandra Mallik are the three front ranking leaders of the National Education Movement.

Q. 70. In which year was Ashutosh Mukherjee appointed the Vice-Chancellor of Calcutta University for the first time ?

Ans. Sir Ashutosh Mukherjee became the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Calcutta in 1906. He was the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Calcutta from 1906 to 1914. Again he became the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Calcutta from 1921-1923.

Q. 71. By which other name is the Calcutta University Commission known and why ?

Ans. Government of India appointed in 1917 the Calcutta University Commission with Dr. M. E. Sadler, Vice-Chancellor of Leeds University as its President. The Commission is, therefore, also known as the Sadler Commission.

Q. 72. Why was the Zakir Hussain Committee formed and when ?

Ans. The Zakir Hussain Committee was formed in 1937. Gandhiji's scheme of Basic education was discussed in All Indian Educational Conference which recommend to form a Committee under Zakir Hossain to go through the detail of the scheme.

Q. 73. Mention the seven streams of Mudaliar scheme of Higher Secondary Education ?

Ans. Humanities, Science, Technical education, Agriculture, Commerce, Home Science and Fine Arts are the seven streams of Higher Secondary Education.

Q. 74. When was the Kothari Commission instituted ?

Ans. The Kothari Commission was instituted in 1964. It submitted its report on June 30, 1966.

Q. 75. Mention the language scheme of the Kothari Commission ?

Ans. Like the Mudaliar Commission the Kothari Commi-

ssion also recommended three language formula. It recommended that students must learn the mother-tongue in the Lower Primary stage, in the Upper Primary stage they must learn the mother tongue and Hindi or English, in the lower Secondary stage mother tongue, Hindi or and English and a modern Indian or European language. In the University level it recommended to introduce the mother tongue as early as possible.

✓ Q. 76. What is meant by +2 stage ?

Ans. +2 means the Higher Secondary Stage, i. e., the Eleven and the Twelve Classes.

Q. 77. Which do you think as correct—'Education for Work' or 'Work for Education' ?

Ans. In case of vocational education, Work for Education is appropriate, but in the case of General Education, 'Education for Work' is appropriately applicable.

✓ Q. 78. What was the Language Formula suggested by the Mudaliar Commission ?

Ans. The Commission recommended three language formula, i. e., Vernacular, Federal Language (Hindi) and English and other Indian language in case the mother language is Hindi.

Q. 79. Which Committee did recommend the setting up of Residential Day School ? What were its objects ?

Ans. The Mudaliar Commission recommended the setting up of Residential Day Schools and Schools for the Handicapped.

✓ Q. 80. Who founded the Anglo-Oriental College ? What is the present status of the institution ?

Ans. Sir Syed Ahmed founded in 1875 at Aligarh the Muhammedan Anglo-Oriental College. From that time Aligarh became a centre of Muslim culture in India. In 1920 the Aligarh College was raised to the status of a University.

✓ Q. 81. What do you know of 'Parthenon' ?

Ans. The 'Parthenon' an English Magazine, was published

hed in 1830 by the members of the Academic Association. In the first issue of the Magazine some articles were published in the paper which discussed various subjects including female education, the evils of the social systems of the Hindus and the administrative corruption of the British Government. These articles made a great commotion in the conservative Hindu Society as well as in the administrative circle. So, Dr. Wilson, the editor of the Magazine stopped the publication of the paper.

Q. 82. What do you know of Henry Louis Vivian Derozio ?

Ans. Henry Louis Vivian Derozio was born in Calcutta in 1809 in a Portuguese-Indian family. He began his life as a clerk in his father's office, but soon adopted the profession of a teacher and journalist. In 1826 he was appointed a teacher in the Hindu College in Calcutta and occupied that post till his forced resignation in April 1831. During the short spell of five years he exercised an immense influence on his students of the Hindu College and through them over a very large number of youths who were not his students and thus created a group of free-thinkers known as young Bengal. They were radical in their views, openly attacked all that they considered unreasonable in Hindu Society and religion and thus created a great stir in the country. The attacks of the young Bengal made on Hinduism were bitterly resented by the orthodox community and their opposition to Derozio's continuance as a teacher Derozio to resign. He lived but a short time after his resignation but he left his mark on the history of modern Bengal, and through it of modern India by creating a body of young men who were radicals in thought and whose opposition to authority to religion was soon to be directed against authority in administration also. Seldom has a teacher exercised such a great influence on his students within so short a time.

Q. 83. Who founded the Tattabodhini Pathshala ?

Ans. In 1840 Maharshi Devendranath Tagore founded the Tattabodhini Pathshala. It imparted to the students spiritual knowledge with spiritual knowledge also.

Q. 84. When was Hindu Mela founded ? Name some of the organisers of the Hindu Mela.

Ans. Hindu Mela was started in 1867. Raj Narayan Basu was the main organiser of the Hindu Mela. Gaganendra Nath Tagore was the Secretary and Nabagopal Mitra Assistant Secretary of the organisation.

Q. 85. When was the Amrita Bazar Patrika published first ? Who was its editor ?

Ans. The Amrita Bazar Patrika was published first in Bengali in 1868. Its editor was Sisir Kumar Ghosh. In 1878 when the rigorous Vernacular Press Act was passed the Amrita Bazar switched on to English language.

Q. 86. When was the Society for the Higher Training of Young Men established ?

Ans. Society for the Higher Training of Young Men was established in 1891. Its initiators were Pratap Chandra Majumdar, Gurudas Bandopadhyaya, Bankim Chandra Chattopadhyaya. And the President of the organisation was Sir Herbert Risley.

Q. 87. When was the Jamia Milia Islamia founded ?

Ans. In 1920 October 20, Jamia Milia Islamia was established in the campus of the Muhammedan Anglo-Oriental College. Aligarh in implementation of the policy of Non-Co-operation.

Maulana Muhammed Ali was the first Shaikh-ul-Jamia (Vice-Chancellor) and Hakim Ajmal Khan, the first Amir-e-Jamia (Chancellor). Among the founders was Zakir Hussain, who left the Aligarh M.A.O. College and joined the Jamia Milia.

Q. 88. What were the aims and objects of the Jamia Milia ?

Ans. Jamia Milia had two purposes : (i) to train the Muslim Youth with definite ideas of their rights and other duties as Indian citizens ; and (ii) to co-ordinate Islamia thought and behaviour with Hindus.

The general aim is to create a harmonious nationhood without Muslims losing their Islamic identity.

In short, the aim of the institution to keep alive Islamic culture and education and also help in the realisation of the ideal of a common nationhood and the achievement of the freedom of the country.

Q. 89. When was the Stanley Despatch sent? What was its aim?

Ans. The Stanley Despatch was sent in 1859. Its object was to review the progress of education in India since the days of the Wood's Despatch in 1854 and the foundation of the Universities of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras.

Q. 90. What do you know of the Gurukul University?

Ans. The Gurukul University was founded at Hardwar by the members of the Arya Samaj in 1902. Its ideal is to foster the necessity of reviving the Vedic ideal in modern life.

Q. 91. Who founded the Dayananda Anglo-Vedic College at Lahore?

Ans. Lala Hansraj.

Q. 92. What do you know of the Poona Women's University?

Ans. Poona Women's University was founded by professor Dhonduras Kesava Karve in 1916. It marked a important stage in the progress of the female education in India.

Q. 93. What was Sir William Jones's most important contribution to the cause of education and culture in India?

Ans. The greatest contribution of Sir William Jones was the foundation of the Asiatic Society of Bengal (afterwards known as Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal. It was an association of learned men especially interested in Oriental studies.

Q. 94. In which year was the Hindu Vidyalyaya established? Mention the names of at least two of its founders.

Ans. Hindu Vidyalaya was established in 1817.

Some of the well-known founders of the institution were : Edward Hyde East, Baidyanath Mukherjee, Radhakanta Dev, Ramkamal Sen, Francis Irvin etc.

Q. 95. Which year and from where was the Samachar Darpan first published ?

Ans. In 1818 from Serampur (West Bengal) the Samachar Darpan was published. Its editor was Joshua Marshman.

Q. 96. When and by whom the Atmiya Sabha founded ?

Ans. Raja Ramnohan Roy founded the Atmiya Sabha in 1815. Its aim was to fight the superstitions of the Hindu religion on the one hand and the spread of Christianity by the missionaries on the other.

Q. 97. Mention at least two objectives of the Tattabodhini Sabha.

Ans. For the improvement of education, research and religious discourses Devendranath Tagore established the Tattaranjini Sabha, which became known as Tattabodhini Sabha in 1839.

Q. 98. In which year and when was the G. C. P. I. formal ?

Ans. The G. C. P. I. (General Committee of Public Instruction) was formed. ~~1821~~ (1823 31 July)

Q. 99. What is meant by Downward Filtration Theory ?

Ans. The Downward Filtration Theory means the introduction of western education among the upper and lower middle classes. The British Government took the policy to create a class of clerks for the benefit of cheap administration.

Q. 100. What has been abbreviated into D. P. I. ?

Ans. The shorter form of Director of Public Instruction is D. P. I.

Q. 101. In which year was the Simla Conference held and with what purpose ?

Ans. In 1901 Lord Curzon called the Simla Conference to discuss the problems of education in India.

Q. 102. Under whose chairmanship was the University Education Commission formed after independence ?

Ans. In 1948, the Government of India appointed a University Commission under the chairmanship of Sir Radhakrishnan. The Commission submitted its report in 1949.

Q. 103. What is known as Gokhale Bill ?

Ans. In 1910, Gopal Krishna Gokhale, Member of the Legislative Council, sponsored a bill for compulsory primary education which was rejected on account of opposition of the Government of the day.

Q. 104 What were the chief feature of missionary education in India ?

Ans. The chief features of the missionary education in India was as follows :

- (a) Vernacular was used as the medium of instruction ;
- (b) Religious instruction was compulsory ;
- (c) There were fixed hours of schooling ;
- (d) A wide curriculum was followed ;
- (e) Separate classes under separate teachers were held ;
- (f) Education was primary and free ;

Though religion was the chief objective of the missionaries, their relentless work for spreading religion developed a concrete form of primary education as an appendix to their main programme.

Q. 105. What is the important contribution of Halhed on the cause of education ?

Ans. Halhed's greatest contribution is his 'Bengali Grammar' written for the benefit of the Civil servants but which served the purpose of others also.

Q. 106. Why was the Calcutta Free School Society established ?

Ans. The Calcutta Free School Society was established in 1789 for educating the children of the Europeans in Calcutta.

Q. 107. What is the meaning of Nai Talim ?

Ans. The system of education expounded by Gandhiji is called 'Basic' as it will provide the basis of our national culture as it will be closely linked with the basic needs of and interests of child life. Moreover, it is correlated with basic occupation of community life.

The system of Basic education is also known as 'Nai Talim' or New Education,

Q. 108. In which year and in which paper Gandhiji published his new idea of Basic education ?

Ans. In 1937 Gandhiji in a series of articles in 'Harijan' expounded a new plan of mass education which is known as 'Basic education' or 'Nai Talim'.

Q. 109. What was the background of Gandhiji's proposal for Basic education ?

Ans. Under the provincial autonomy, Congress Ministries assumed offices in seven provinces in 1937. Immediately, thereafter, the Congress was confronted with the problem of Primary Education. On the one hand, there was a strong public resentment against the existing system of education, and on the other, a demand for universal free and compulsory primary education. The position was further complicated by the decision to introduce a total prohibition. This meant a further loss of easily available revenue. The solution to this problem was indicated by Mahatma Gandhi in a series of articles in 'Harijan' in which he expounded a new plan of mass education.

Q. 110. What were the special features of Gandhiji's plan of Basic education ?

Ans. The special features of Gandhiji's plan of Basic education were :

(a) Primary education should be extended to seven years.

(b) The course should include general knowledge upto Matriculation standard less English plus a useful vocation.

(c) The vocation should serve two-fold purpose :—to develop the pupil's entire personality and to enable him to pay for the expense of his education by his own labour.

(d) By the inclusion of profit earning vocation the plan provided an answer to the financial problem in mass education.

(e) The state should guarantee the employment of the students in their respective vocation or buying their products as that they can earn their bread after coming out.

Q. 111. What was the language policy of Basic education proposed by Gandhiji ?

Ans. The Wardha Committee who reviewed Gandhiji's proposal of Basic education viewed the mother tongue as the foundation of all education. So emphasis was given on a proper learning of the mother tongue.

Q. 112. What do you know of the Sergant scheme for Education ?

Ans. The scheme was prepared by Sir John Sergant who was the Educational Adviser to the Government of India. It sought to introduce universal free and compulsory education of boys and girls between ages of 6 and 14. The scheme is estimated to cost Rs. 200 crore a year. The basic education was to consist of two stages viz, the junior stage and the senior stage. After the primary stage all boys and girls were not to be allowed to go to high schools. Only those were to be allowed who were expected to join a high school. Schools were to be maintained out of public funds as far as possible. Restriction were to be put on the admission of students into colleges. Intermediate colleges were to be joined with the schools, and college education was to last for 3 years.

Q. 113. What do you know of Radhakanta Dev ?

Ans. Raja Radhakanta Dev (1794-1867) was a well known leader of the Orthodox Hindu Community of Bengal in the 19th century. He liberally patronised learning, Eastern as well as western. He spent large sums of money in compiling the famous Sanskrit dictionary, Sabda-Kalpadruma, to which his own contribution illustrated his own erudition, and at the same time he co-operated with David Hare in managing the Hindu College for educating Hindu boys in western learning specially in English, and establishing the School Book Society, so that there would be a cheap supply of good text-books which were essential for the expansion of education amongst the people. But he was opposed to social reforms, to the Brahma Samaj and even to the abolition of Sati and organised a mass petition against it. He was an example of the conservative Hindu who would accept the utilitarian aspects of western civilisation and retain his faith in the old social customs.

Q. 114. What do you know of the Beneres Hindu University?

Ans. Beneres Hindu University was established by the untiring zeal and efforts of Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya in 1915. It is now one of the largest residential universities in India.

Q. 115. Who was the founder of the Central Hindu College at Beneres?

Ans. Annie Besant.

Q. 116. What were the terms of reference placed before the Mudaliar Commission?

Ans. Terms of reference placed before the Mudaliar Commission were as follows:

(a) The Commission was asked to enquire into the report on the present position of the Secondary Education in all aspects;

(b) The Commission was also asked to suggest measures for its reorganisation, improvement and expansion with particular reference to;

(i) The aims, organisation and content of Secondary Education ;

(ii) Its relationship to Primary, Basic and Higher Education ;

(iii) The inter-relation of Secondary schools of different types ; and

(iv) Other allied problems.

Q. 117. What were the two controversial matters published in the first issue of 'Parthenon' ?

Ans. In the first issue of the Parthenon published in 1830 two articles were inserted which discussed various subjects including female education, the evils of social systems of the Hindus and the administrative corruption of the British Government. There hurt the conservative Hindu Society and the British administrators and the paper was forced to stop its publication.

Q. 118. Who were the editor of Sambad Kaumudi and Sambad Prabhakar ?

Ans. Raja Rammohan Roy was the editor of Sambad Kaumudi published in 1802.

Iswar Chandra Gupta was the editor of Sambad Prabhakar.

Q. 119. Which years the University of Calcutta and Bengal Engineering College were established ?

Ans. The University of Calcutta was established on January 24, 1, 1857.

The Bengal Engineering College was established.

Q. 120. Who is the author of Varna Parichay ? Give the year of first publication of Varna Parichay, Part I.

Ans. The author of Varna Parichay is Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar. It was published in 1855.

Q. 121. Gives the name of the two personalities who used to deliver lectures at the meetings of the Dawn Society ?

Ans. Nagendranath Ghosh, Principal Metropo

Institution and Satis Chandra Mukhopadhyaya, Secretary of the Dawn Society delivered lectures to the members of the society.

Q. 122. Which years the National Education Council and the first National School were established ?

Ans. National Education Council was founded in 1906. First National School and first National College were established at a rental house located in Bowbazar Street, Calcutta and Aravind Ghosh joined as the principal of both the school and the college.

Q. 123. Write a note on the East India College at Haileybury.

Ans. East India Company was established in 1805 by the East India Company for going a training to the young persons who were given nomination by the Company for entering as cadets into the Company's Civil Service in India. Every young recruit was to spend two years at the East India College at Haileybury where his general education was continued and where he was to learn something of Indian languages, laws and history.

On completion of the course of two year's studies the young cadets were sent to India for entering into their work as civil servants. The cadets were all nominated young persons and the East India College aimed not at screening them but at adding to their knowledge as much as they were capable of assimilation.

The college developed among its students a spirit of comradeship and emulation, but did not add much to their intellectual attainments.

The college functioned for fifty years (1805—1855) and was abolished soon after the introduction of Indian Civil Service.

Q. 124. What do you know of the Fort William College.

Ans. The Fort William College was established in Calcutta in 1800 for developing the mental faculties of the

Junior Civil Servants in the company's service when they first arrived in India.

The college provided for a three year's educational course which was comprehensive and included the study of Modern History and Literature, Classical History and Literature, Laws of Nations, Ethics and Jurisprudence as well as of Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian Literature, Urdu, Bengali and Marathi, the different codes of laws followed in India, History of India and the Regulations which have been passed from time to time by the Governor-General in Council.

The Fort William College was to be managed by a Governing Body consisting of the members of the Supreme Council and the Judges of the Sudder Courts.

The Governor-General himself was the Patron and Visitor.

The college was to be controlled by a Provost, who was always to be a clergyman of the Church of England.

Many professors were also appointed and placed in charge of teaching of different subjects.

The college was run on this elaborate and comprehensive basis for about seven years.

It trained during the period several batches of civil servants and the quality of its products like Charles Metcalfe, and William Butterworth Bayley amply justified its creation and existence.

But Lord Wellesley had started the college without the formal sanction of the Court of Directors who showed their grudge by refusing the necessary sanction and starting the Haileybury College near London in 1805 for training the entrants to the Indian Civil Service.

The Fort William College was reduced in 1807 to a mere seminary for teaching the Indian languages and was finally abolished in 1851.

Q. 125. Why and where was the East India College established ?

Ans. East India College at Haileybury was established in 1805 by the East India Company for giving a training to the young persons who were given nomination by the company for entering as cadets into the Company's Civil Service in India.

Q. 126. In which year was Macaulay's Minute accepted? What is its impact in the field of education?

Ans. Macaulay's Minute was accepted in the year 1835. After the acceptance of the Minute the western system of education through the medium of English language was patronised by the Governments of India. The claim of the orientalist through the medium of Sanskrit or Persian lost its ground for ever and these two classical languages began to be neglected even by the Indians.

Q. 127. In which year Vivekananda Society was formed?

Ans. The Vivekananda Society was formed in 1902.

Q. 127A. When was the Sadler Commission appointed?

Ans. It was appointed in 1947 which submitted its report in 1919.

Q. 128. In which year and where was the first Conference on Basic Education of Gandhiji held?

Ans. All India National Conference on Education was convened at Wardha in October, 1937, to examine the new system of Basic Education proposed by Gandhiji.

Q. 129. Why was the Mudaliar Commission appointed?

Ans. The Central Advisory Board of Education recommended in January 1948, the appointment of a Commission to study the prevailing system of secondary education in the country and suggested measures for its reorganisation and improvement.

Q. 130. Who were the ^{authors} others of Batris Simhasan and Tota Itihas used as text books at the Fort William College?

Ans. The author of Batris Simhasan was Mrityuanjoy Vidyalankar.

The author of Tota Itihas was Chandicharan Mitra.

Q. 131. Give the names of two of the Bengali Pandits attached to Serampore Mission.

Ans. Jaygopal Tarkalankar and Tarini Charan Shiromoni were attached to Serampur Mission.

Q. 132. Which year and what for was the Calcutta School Book Society established ?

Ans. The School Book Society was established in Calcutta in 1817 mainly by the efforts of Hyde East. Its main object was to sell, print and publish text books in India at cheap prices.

Q. 133. Give the name of the author and the year of the publication of the first Bengali Grammar.

Ans. Halhed's Bengal Grammar was the first attempt to write a Grammar of Bengali language. It was published in 1784.

Q. 134. Who established Anglo-Vedic School and Arpooli Pathshala ?

Ans. Anglo-Vedic School was established by Raja Rammohan Roy.

Arpooli Pathshala was established by David Hare.

Q. 135. Give the names of two of the famous members of the Young Bengal group who were disciples of Derozio.

Ans. Dakshina Ranjan Mukhopadhyaya, Ramgopal Ghosh, Krishna Mohan Bandopadhyaya, Ramtanu Lahiri etc. were prominent members of the Young Bengal and disciples of Derozio.

Q. 136. Which subjects constituted the 'core' recommended by the Mudaliar Commission ?

Ans. The report of the Mudaliar Commission defined the compulsory subjects as 'Core subjects'.

Q. 137. Give the full title of the Mudaliar Commission report and mention the year.

Ans. "Mudaliar Commission Report on the Secondary

Education," was the full title of the Commission which was published in 1953.

Q. 138. What do you know of the Anti-circular society?

Ans. The Anti-circular Society was formed to fight the Carlyle circular with Sachindra Prasad Basu as Secretary.

The principal function of the society was at first confined to leading processions singing national songs in the streets of Calcutta and picketing of shops selling foreign. Gradually its sphere of work was extended and its programme of work fell into the following categories :

(I) To arrange for the education of students expelled from their schools for participation in the Swadeshi Movement.

(II) To propagate among the masses through procession and songs the objective of the nationalist movement and to preach the means of its success.

(III) To persuade the sellers of foreign goods from dealing in them and intending purchasers against purchasing them.

(IV) To arrange for supply of indigenous goods in town and villages sale.

(V) To popularise Swadeshi Movement through speeches in public meetings.

Q. 139. Who were the early founders of the Bengali Printing?

Ans. Sir Charles Wilkins was specially interested to print books in Bengali type. At his instance few technicians devoted their time and energy to cast Bengali types. Panchanan Karmakar was one of them who showed exceptional efficiency in this work.

Q. 140. What were the journals and paper brought out by the Serampur Mission?

Ans. In 1818 the Serampur Mission brought out two

periodicals. The first was a monthly journal named 'Digdarshana' which was soon followed by a weekly called 'Samachar-darpana' (Mirror of News). This was the most important Bengali periodical of the early days.

Q. 141. When was the 'Sambad-Kaumudi' published for the first time?

Ans. In 1821 the Sambad-Kaumudi was first published.

Q. 142. What were the objectives of the Fort William College? How far were they successful?

Ans. Fort William College was established in Calcutta by Lord Wellesley in 1800 for developing the mental faculties of the Junior Civil Servants in the company's service, when they first arrived in India.

The college was run on elaborate and comprehensive basis for about seven years. It trained during this period several batches of civil servants and the quality of its products like Charles Metcalfe and William Butterworth Bayley amply justify its creation and existence.

The Fort William College was reduced in 1807 to a mere seminary for teaching the Indian languages and was finally abolished in 1854. Yet its success and contributions can hardly be overestimated.

Q. 143. Mention the main literary contribution of Ramram Basu.

Ans. In the field of development of education and Bengali Prose Ramram Basu is popularly known as 'Carey Saheber Munshi'. The well-known books written by Ramram Basu are: 'Maharaja Krishna Chandra Rayasya Charitram', 'Lipimala' etc. His other writings are:

'Khristav', 'Harkara', 'Jnanodaya', 'Kristavivaranamritang'.

Q. 144. Account for Rammohan Roy's patronage to Anglo-Vedic education.

Ans. Raja Rammohan Roy patronised Anglo-Vedic Education because he wanted to make a synthesis between the oriental and occidental culture. His aim was to accept

the best of the western culture without giving up the best essence of the Indian culture and civilisation.

Q. 145. What was Radhakanta Dev's attitude to English education ?

Ans. Raja Radhakanta Dev belonged to Orthodox Hindu Community, but he liberally patronised learning Eastern as well as Western. He co-operated with David Hare in managing the Hindu College, Calcutta for educating Hindu boys in Western learning, especially in English and in establishing the School Book Society so that there would be a cheap supply of good text-books which were essential for the expansion of education amongst the people. In short, Raja Radhakanta Dev was an example of the conservative Hindu who would accept the utilitarian aspects of western civilisation and yet retain his faith in the old social customs.

Q. 146. How was David Hare related to Hindu Vidyalaya ?

Ans. David Hare took a leading part in initiating the scheme of establishing an English school in Calcutta and it was largely due to his efforts that the Hindu College was opened on January 20, 1817.

After the establishment of the school he took keen interest in every matter of the institution and always tried to take personal care of the students of the college. In short, Hindu College became the part and parcel of his life.

Q. 147. What ways and means were adopted by the G.C.P.I. to encourage learning ?

Ans. G. C. P. I. (General Committee of Public Instruction) mainly wanted to patronise the oriental system of education. The improved the condition of the Calcutta Madrasah, established the Calcutta Sanskrit College, published the Arabic and Sanskrit translation of selected English books, granted pension to Indian scholars and honoured them with different titles. But they were not totally indifferent about the spread of western education. Side by side with oriental studies they also patronised western science, law and medical science.

Q. 148. What were the areas surveyed in Rev. Adam's second report and third report ?

Ans. In Adam's second report Natore thana in Rajsahi district and in his third report Murshidabad, Birbhum, Tripura and South Behar were surveyed.

Q. 149. Who founded the Vidyotsahani Sabha ?

Ans. Kaliprasanna Sinha founded the Vidyotsahani Sabha. Vidyotsahini Sabha began to publish Vidyotsahini Patrika in 1855.

Q. 150. What is meant by Grant-in-Aid ?

Ans. Grant-in-Aid means Government financial assistance to private school under some definite condition.

Wood's Despatch (1854) recommended the system of Grant-in-Aid for the first time.

Q. 151. Why was 'Varna Parichay' important ?

Ans. 'Varna Parichay' written by Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar is an ideal text-book for the children. This helped the children to learn Bengali with minimum effort.

Besides Varna Parichay, Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar also wrote 'Bodhodaya' and 'Kathamala' for the children. All these book are still considered as the ideal primer books for the children.

Q. 152. Why was the 'Tattabodhini Sabha' founded ?

Ans. Tattabodhini Sabha was founded by Devendra Nath Tagore in 1839 for the improvement of education, research and religious discourses.

Q. 153. When was the Tattabodhini Pathsala established ?

Ans. In 1840 Devendranath Tagore established the Tattabodhini Pathsala with a view to imparting general education and teachings in languages and western science.

Q. 154. State the major features of the Metropolitan Institution ?

Ans. A group of friends of Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar founded in 1859 an institution named Calcutta Training

School. Vidyasagar efficiently organised the school and in 1864 it became known as the Hindu Metropolitan Institution and Metropolitan College. It became an ideal institution and attracted the attention of large number of students. Iswar Chandra himself maintained the financial burden of the institution.

Q. 155. What were the most important recommendations of Hunter Commission in respect of the administration of the Primary education ?

Ans. All elementary schools were to be inspected and supervised by the educational officers of the Government, Emphasis was put on physical and mental education of the students. The Commission felt that primary education needed strongest encouragement by the Government. A part of the provincial revenue should be exclusively reserved for primary education. Primary education should be given by State, District Boards and Municipalities.

Q. 156. Who did demand first the autonomy in University administration ?

Ans. Sir Ashutosh Mukhopadhyaya.

Q. 157. Discuss the objective of the Dawn Society.

Ans. 'The Dawn' was published in 1897 to ventilate the ideals of Bhagavat Chatuspathi founded by Satis Chandra Mukhopadhyaya. After a few years it organised the Dawn Society which whole heartedly devoted itself to popularise the ideals of Swadeshi Movement. Dawn Society thus became the main organ of the Dawn, which became synonymous of Swadeshi Movement.

Q. 158. What were the contents of the Carlyle circular ?

Ans. In 1905, during the Swadeshi Movement the boycott of English School started. At that time Mr. R.W. Carlyle, Chief Secretary of the Government of Bengal issued a circular to District Magistrates and directed them to resist the students from joining Swadeshi and Boycott Movement. He also directed to punish the students severely who would violate the circular. This notorious order is known as 'Carlyle Circular'.

Q. 159. What were the main provisions of Gokhale's Primary Education Bill ?

Ans. The Bill introduced by Gokhale in the imperial Legislative Council in 1911 was to introduce Compulsory Primary education among the Indian children. He proposed that boys between the age limits of 6 and 10 and not girls would come under the provision. The poor parents should be exempted from paying fees. The expenditure should be met by imposing education cess.

Q. 160. What main type of vocational and technical institutions were recommended by Abbot-Wood Committee ?

Ans. Abbot-Wood Committee recommended the introduction of vocational and technical education side by side in the secondary stage after the completion of the General Education upto class VIII. Parallel to college education there would be two years' vocational and technical course. Employed persons would also be provided with part-time training in vocational and technical course. Besides a composite course would be introduced for junior, senior and part-time students.

Q. 161. What was the most important part of Stanley's Despatch ?

Ans. Stanley in his Despatch of 1859 made some recommendations but mainly accepted 'the recommendations of Wood's Despatch of 1854'. The most important part of his Despatch is his recommendations with regard to Primary education. He also rightly pointed out the need of levying taxes for it was hardly possible to meet the entire expenditure on primary education.

Q. 162. What is 'wastage' in education ?

Ans. When the pupils discontinue their studies before completion the course for which they were admitted, it is called wastage as the entire effort during this period to make literate has been useless.

Wastage is very large in the Primary stage.

Q. 163. What is 'stagnation' in education ?

Ans. Stagnation means failure in class examinations as a result of which the pupils remain in the same class for years together, i. e., they do not get promoted to the next higher class.

Stagnation is very large in the lower primary stage.

Q. 164. What do you know of Hicky's journal ?

Ans. In 1780 James Augustus Hicky, with the previous approval of the Government, started a weekly paper called Bengal Gazette or Calcutta General Adviser, which described itself as "A weekly Political and Commercial paper open to all parties, but influenced by None".

Q. 165. Name some of the teachers connected with the Fort William College.

Ans. William Carey, Ramram Basu, Mrityunjay Vidyalkar, Tarini Charan Mitra, Rajiv Lochan Mukhopadhyaya, Chandi Charan Mitra, Haraprasad Roy were the prominent teachers of the institution. Among the teachers of the later period the names of Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar and Madanmohan Tarkalankar can be specially mentioned.

Q. 166. When and by whom the Serampur Mission was established ?

Ans. Joshua Marshman, William Ward, Mr. Brandon, Mr. Grant and others established the Serampur Mission in 1800.

Q. 167. Who did initiate the foundation of the Normal Schools ?

Ans. Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar laid great stress on the training of the teachers and so he submitted a plan for the foundation of Normal Schools. According to his plan first Normal School was founded in 1855 and Akshoy Kumar Dutta became its first principal.

Q. 168. Who did establish the Nari Siksha Bhandar ?

Ans. Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar founded the Nari Siksha Bhandar.

At the initiate of Iswar Chandra a large number of institutions for female education were established. But the Gove-

rnment took little care to grant them financial assistance. So Iswar Chandra founded the Nari Siksha Bhandar of their maintenance.

Q. 169. What do you know of the Deccan Education Society ?

Ans. The Deccan Education Society was founded in 1884 under the inspiration of Justice M. G. Ranade of Maharashtra. Its headquarters were at Bombay and it started with the object of remodelling the system of education of the young in the country so that they may be better fitted for the service of the country than young men trained in the ordinary education institutions.

The members of the society required to serve for at best 20 years on a nominal salary starting with Rs. 75/. per month. Many self-sacrificing youngmen, amongst whom Gopal Krishna Gokhale and Srinivas Sastri later on became very renowned, joined the Deccan Education Society and succeeded by their selfless efforts to start the famous Ferguson College in Poona and the Wellington College at Sangli.

Q. 170. When was the Sanskrit College of Calcutta established ?

Ans. The Sanskrit College of Calcutta was established in 1824.

Q. 171. What do you know of 'Tols' ?

Ans. Tols are indigenous Sanskrit Schools. Schools characteristic of the ancient Hindu system of education. These were located in the houses of Adhyapakas (professors) who mainrained the institutions at their own cost, finding accommodation and food, and in some cases even clothing, for the students who were admitted.

The hours of teaching and reading were so arranged as to suit the convenience of the teacher and the taught.

Close contact between the student and the teacher as well as the absence of any kind of monetary payment by the students were the main characteristics of the system.

As the teachers had to maintain the student, naturally

the former exercised some right in picking and choosing the students, who generally belonged to the caste of Brahmins, but teaching was available to meritorious students of other castes also, if and when they could arrange for their food elsewhere.

The adhyapakas whose precarious incomes depended on the generosity of local land lords and other men of piety, underwent much hardship in maintaining the Tols which was considered as a bounden duty which every Brahmin learned in the Shastras (sacred Sanskrit literature) owed his religion. All branches of Sanskrit learning, especially grammar, literature, law (Smriti), logic (Nyaya), and philosophy (Vedanta and Darshan) were taught. Some Tols are still in existence and to some now Government make monthly grants.

Q. 172. What do you know of Madrasha ?

Ans. Madrasha was the centre of highest education of the Muslims. It imparted the education in different branches of humanities, and general sciences besides the languages of Arabic and Persian. The main object of Madrashas was to create Maulavis and Ulemas.

Q. 173. What do you know of Pathshalas ?

Ans. Pathshalas were the institutions organised by the Hindus for imparting elementary education. It mainly taught three Rs—Reading, Writing and Reckoning.

Q. 174. What were the Maktabas ?

Ans. Maktabas were the Muslim institution for imparting elementary education to the students.

Q. 175. What are the causes of wastage and stagnation in education ?

Ans. Causes of wastage and stagnation are as follows :

(a) Poverty of parents. The parents having very meagre income require the utilisation of the services of children for supplementing their income, and take them away from school ;

(b) Malnutrition ;

- (c) Indifference of teachers ;
- (d) Fresh admissions throughout the year without consideration of age ;
- (e) Lack of teacher's training causing inefficient teaching ;
- (f) Lack of accommodation i. e., poor and cheap housing of schools and lack of proper school environment ;
- (g) Existence of single teacher schools ;
- (h) Lack of adequate number of teachers ;
- (i) Lack of interest of parents towards the education of their children ;
- (j) Irregular appointment of teachers ;
- (k) Irregular attendance and
- (l) Lack of study material required.

Q. 176. What is the view of the Education Commission on Wastage and Stagnation ?

Ans. The report of the Education Commission reads, wastage and stagnation, like headache and fever, are not disease themselves ; they are really symptoms of other diseases in the educational system, the chief among which are the lack of proper articulation between education and life and the poor capacity of the schools to attract and hold students. To these may be added a third element poverty, which falls outside the system.

Q. 177. Why did Stanley send his Education Despatch in 1859 ?

Ans. The foundation of the British rule in India was greatly shaken by the outbreak of the Sepoy Mutiny in 1857. The administration was taken over by the Crown and Lord Stanley was appointed Secretary of State. He made a further review of the existing educational policy and recorded his observation and recommendation in a memorandum which was called Stanley Despatch. But this Despatch greatly reaffirmed the principles of Wood's Despatch.

Q. 178. What were the main observations of Stanley's Despatch ?

Ans. Stanley's Despatch observed that the system of Grants-in-aid had failed to incite adequate interest in Primary education. So, he advocated direct control and management of the State in providing Primary education. This was considered to be more effective in spreading mass education. Since the system of grants-in aid was discouraged the Despatch suggested levy, if necessary, a tax and land cess in order to defray the expenses from Primary education under direct-state management. It also favoured the best utilisation of indigenous schools and teachers who were more familiar and commanded more respect of the local people. It also advised the Government to open more training school for the training of teachers.

But in fact, Stanley's Despatch brought about a little change in the field of Primary education of our country.

Q. 179. What do you mean by Philosophy of Education ?

Ans. Educational Philosophy or a Philosophy of Education looks at education as a whole and tries to develop a total and all comprehensive outlook on education.

Q. 180. What are the usefulness of Philosophy of Education to a teacher ?

Ans. The Philosophy of Education is necessary to a teacher for several reason :

(a) The teacher must know what education is what are its aims and purpose and how is it related to life.

(b) He must understand how these aims and objectives can be actually realised through a proper organisation of school activities, what his own position and functions are in the super structure of education.

(c) There be successful in guiding his pupils along the right direction, must have clear ideas about the nature, significance and characteristics of different dynamic methods of teaching, when and how to employ them and various instructional devices and aids to be used by him.

In all these spheres a sound Philosophy of Education will be his surest guide.

Q. 181. What is the rate of national average literacy according to the 1981 census ?

Ans. 36.23 per cent.

Q. 182. What was the rate of national average literacy according to the 1917 census ?

Ans. 16.67 per cent.

Q. 183. When was the university Grant's Commission founded ?

Ans. In 1953.

Q. 184. When the National Professorship was instituted by the Government of India ?

Ans. In 1949.

Q. 185. The Indian Council of Historical Research located in New Delhi was founded in—

Ans. In 1972.

Q. 186. The Indian Institute of Advanced Study located in Simla was set up—

Ans. In 1965.

Q. 187. National Council of Educational Research and Training was set up in—

Ans. 1961.

Q. 188. National Book Trust of India was set up in—

Ans. 1957.

Q. 189. The Raja Rammohan Roy National Educational Research Centre has set up in New Delhi to serve as information-cum-documentation research centre in—

Ans. 1972.

Q. 190. What do you know of Lalit Kala Academy ?

Ans. To promote the understanding of Indian art both within and outside the country, the Government established the Lalit Kala Academy (National Academy of Fine Arts) in

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1964. The Academy strives to promote this objective through exhibitions, publications, workshops and camps. Every year it holds a national exhibition and every three years, the Triennale—India, an international exhibition.

Q. 191. When has the Sangeet Natak Akadami been established ?

Ans. In 1953.

Q. 192. What are the objects of Sangeet Natak Akadami ?

Ans. The Sangeet Natak Akadami fosters the development of dance, drama and music.

Q. 193. When was the National School Dance, New Delhi established ?

Ans. In 1959.

Q. 194. When was the Sahitya Akadami (National Akadami of Letters), New Delhi established ?

Ans. In 1954.

Q. 195. When was the National Council of Arts established ?

Ans. In 1983.

Q. 196. When was the Department of Science and Technology established ?

Ans. In 1971.

Q. 197. Name some of the departments of scientific research of the Government of India.

Ans. (i) Department of Atomic Energy

(ii) Department of Scientific and Industrial Research

(iii) Defence Research and Development organisation

(iv) Indian Council of Agricultural Research

(v) Indian Council of Medical Research

(vi) Department of Science and Technology

(vii) Department of Space

- (viii) Department of Electronics
- (ix) Department of Environment
- (x) Department of Ocean Development
- (xi) Department of Non-Conventional Energy Sources.

Q. 198. When was the centre for Cultural Resources and Training set up ?

Ans. In 1979.

Q. 199. The Anthropological Survey of India started in India in—

Ans. In 1945.

Q. 200. Where is the Rastriya Manav Sangrahalaya located ?

Ans. Bhopal.

Q. 201. The Central Institute of Buddhist studies, Leh was established in—

Ans. 1959.

Q. 202. The Institute of Tibetan Studies is located at—

Ans. Varanasi.

Q. 203. The Theosophical Society of India is located at—

Ans. Madras.

Q. 204. The Khuda Baksh Oriented Public Library is located at—

Ans. Patna.

Q. 205. In which year was the Asiatic Society founded and who was the initiator ?

Ans. In the year 1884 the Asiatic Society was founded as a Centre of Cultivation of the Eastern language and literature of Asia. Sir William Jones was the initiator of establishing this Society.

Q. 206. What was the purpose of Asiatic Society ?

Ans. The purpose of Asiatic Society was to enlighten the

Europeans in the eastern culture and develop interest among the Europeans about this culture.

Q. 207. When and why was Fort William College set up?

Ans. In 1800 Fort William College was set up. The purpose of this College was to train the young European Civilians in Eastern language, literature, customs and tradition.

Q. 208. Who has established the Fort William College? What were the objectives of this College?

Ans. Lord Wellesley, the then Governor has established the Fort William College in the year 1800. The objectives of the College was to train up the people with European knowledge, as well as the Eastern literature.

Q. 209. Give the names of one famous Bengalee and one European who taught Fort William College in its early year.

Ans. William Carey accepted an offer to be the head of the Bengali Department and recruited the eminent persons like Mrityunjay Vidyalankar, Kashinath Tarkapanchanan. The European Scholars associated with College are William Kirkpatrick.

Q. 210. Where and why was the East India College established?

Ans. East India College was established in England. The purpose of the College was to make the direct contact between the Indian Society and with that of the European administrators.

Q. 211. Who were the authors of "Batriś Sinhasan" and "Tota Itihas" used as text book at the Fort William College?

Ans. In 1802 Mrityunjay Vidyalankar has composed "Batriś Sinhasan" and Chandi Charan Munshi has written "Tota Itihas" in 1805, and these books were included as the text-book in Fort William College.

Q. 212. What was Sir William Jones's most important contribution to the cause of education and culture in India?

Ans. The most important contribution to the cause of education and culture in India by Sir William Jones was the foundation of Asiatic Society in the year 1884.

Q. 213. What was the name of the College founded in 1830 by Alexander Duff? What is the present name of the Institution?

Ans. In 1830 Alexander Duff has founded the General Assembly's Institution. He wanted to make the downward filtration. Theory to be in practical through this institution. The present name of the institution is "Scottish Church College".

Q. 214. By whom and when was Serampore Mission set up?

Ans. In 1800 Mr. Marshman, William Ward, William Carey and Mr. Bransdon had set up Serampore Mission at Serampore.

Q. 215. Write correctly the full names of Serampore Trio.

Ans. The full names of the Serampore Trio are William Carey, a propagandist, William Ward and expert printer Mr. Marshman an official teacher.

Q. 216. Who were the early founders of the Bengali printing?

Ans. Charles Wilkin an efficient printer searched out to develop Bengali types. Panchanan Karmakar had helped him by giving such types and advanced the cause of the Bengali press.

Q. 217. In which year the Portuguese people established the first printing press and college in India?

Ans. In 1556 the Portuguese people established the first printing press at Goa, and began to use the press. In 1575 they also established a college named Jesuit College at Goa in India.

Q. 218. What were the journals and papers brought out by the Serampore Mission?

Ans. The first news paper Hickey's Bengal Gazette had been brought out in 1780 by the Serampore Mission. They started the Samachar Darpan in 1815, Dig Darshan a polemical Journal.

Q 219. Give the names of two of the Bengali Pandits attached to Serampore Mission ?

Ans. Bengali Pandits like Joygopal and Ram Ram Bose were valuable assets of the Serampore Mission.

Q. 220. Write the name of the first Bengali Newspaper.

Ans. The first Bengali Newspaper was Hickey's Bengal Gazette published from Serampore Mission.

Q. 221. In which year and from where was the Samachar Darpan first published ?

Ans. In 1818 first Samachar Darpan was published from the Serampore Mission.

Q. 222. Name a few books written by William Carey.

Ans. William Carey had written many books. Of them mention may be made of the translation work of the New Testament into 31 Indian languages, the Kathopakhyan Itihasmala.

Q. 223. Who was Carey's Munshi ? What do you know about him ?

Ans. Ram Ram Bose acted as a Munshi of William Carey. He was an efficient person in the history of Bengali prose and education. He himself wrote many book like Raja Protapaditya Charitra, Lipimala. He assisted William Carey to contribute a lot to the Bengali language and literature.

Q. 224. Who is the author of the booklet 'Hints Relative to Native Schools'.

Ans. In 1816 Jasna Marshman has published the booklet "Hints Relative to Native School".

Q. 225. What was the important contribution of Halhed to the cause of education ?

Ans. In 1778 Halhed has published the Bangali Gramm-

ar in the Andrews press in Chinsurah, Charles Wilkins first introduced the Bengali letter for publishing this Bengali Grammar.

Q. 226. Give the name of the missionary who was the first to establish school for females in Bengal.

Ans. In 1840, Bethune has established the Calcutta female school with only 21 students. He was the President of the Council of education at that time.

Q. 227. Give the name of the author and the year of the first publication of the first Bengali Grammar.

Ans. In the year 1778, Halbed had first published the first Bengali Grammar with the help of Charles Wilkins.

Q. 228. Who were the editors of Sambad Kaumudi and Sambad Prabhakar ?

Ans. In 1821, Raja Ram Mohan Roy had published "Sombad Kaumudi" for the purpose of soughting rationality in thought and social action. Iswar Gupta had published "Sambad Pravakar" in 1831. It is the first daily periodical.

Q. 229. What do you mean by Renaissance ?

Ans. A vibration is felt in the socio-cultural life of a nation, when the new ideals and thoughts dash against the traditional ideas and thought. A national effort is also made to re-evaluate the old in the light of the new. This re-orientation of the old in the new perspective is called Renaissance of re-awakening. It was mainly associated with religious movement.

Q. 230. Name the three leading personages who pioneered the trend for synthesising the two—the eastern and the western culture in the different phases of the Renaissance movement.

Ans. Raja Rammohan Roy in the initial stage of the Renaissance movement gave leadership in the attempt for harmonising the two cultures. Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar followed the blazing trail of Raja Rammohan in the mid-phase and the culmination of the synthesis found its expression in and through Rabindranath Tagore.

Q. 231. Who are known as extremely western in their outlook in the Renaissance period ?

Ans. The disciples of Derozio, known as Young Bengal were known as extremely western. The well-known persons are Krishna Mohan Bandyopadhyaya, Ramgopal Ghosh, Radhanath Sikdar and others.

Q. 232. Who were the traditionalists of Renaissance period ?

Ans. The traditionalists of Renaissance period were Prasanna Kumar Thakur, Ram Kumar Sen, Bhavani Charan Banerjee and others. They were guided by Radhakanta Deb.

Q. 233. By whom and when were the Anglo-Vedic School and Vedanta College set up ?

Ans. The Anglo-Vedic School and Vedanta College had been set up by Raja Rammohan Roy in 1822 and in 1825.

Q. 234. Who established Arpooli Pathshala ?

Ans. In 1828 Arpooli Pathshala was established with the inspiration of David Hare. He had controlled the administration of this Pathshala. It was a free educational institution.

Q. 235. Which year and what for the Calcutta School Book Society was established ?

Ans. In 1817 Calcutta School Book Society was established with the effort of non-official enterprise. The purpose of this school was to publish the books in English and Bengali literature.

Q. 236. Name one famous organisation established during the early part of the 19th century for promoting female education.

Ans. The famous organisation established during the early part of the 19th century was the Ladies society for the native female education for promoting female education with the inspiration of lady Amherst.

Q. 237. Write the full name of Derozio.

Ans. The full name of Derozio was Henry Louis Vivian Derozio. He was the missioned lecturer of the Renaissance period.

Q. 238. Mention the main literary contribution of Ram Ram Bose.

Ans. Ram Ram Bose was the Munshi of William Carey. He had composed different books such as Raja Pratapaditya Charitra (1801) Lipimala (1802) and helped Carey a lot for the progress of Bengali literature.

Q. 239. Why was Rammohan's religion known as Brahmaism?

Ans. The traditional Hinduism infested with superstition and orthodoxy, so the young Indian were in favour of Christianity. Rammohan made all realise that Hindu religion is based upon the Upanisad, the Vedanta, and God is the divine soul. As his religion is based on "almighty Bramha". So this religion is known as Brahmaism.

Q. 240. Account for Rammohan's patronage in Anglo-Vedic education.

Ans. Ram Gopal Ghosh, Krishna Mohan Bandyopadhaya, Radhanath Sikdar, Raja Radha Kanta Deb and Maharshi Debendranath Tagore were Rammohan's patronage in Anglo-Vedic education.

Q. 241. When and by whom was Atmiya Sabha founded?

Ans. In 1815 Raja Rammohan Ray has founded Atmiya Sabha for free and open discussions on religious and social reforms.

Q. 242. Name the first society established for discussion by Rammohan and the weekly edited by him.

Ans. Rammohan Roy has established the first society Atmiya Sabha for discussion and his weekly edited paper was Sambad Kaumadi.

Q. 243. Who founded the Anglo-Oriental College? What is the present status of the institution?

Ans. In 1825 Ram Mohan had established the Anglo-Oriental College. The purpose of establishing this institution was to discuss the absolutism. The present status of this institution is "Brahmo Girls School".

Q. 244. Give the name of two periodicals conducted and published by the members of Young Bengal groups.

Ans. The members of Young Bengal groups propagated their urge for new knowledge through different periodicals. Krishna Mohan Banerjee has founded "The Enquirer" in English and the Jnanvasana in Bengali. When the Enquirer was gagged the Young Bengal bought out "the Bengal spectator".

Q. 245. Mention the names of at least two leaders of the Young Bengal and two papers founded as their organisation.

Ans. Derozio and Pyarichand Mitra were the two leaders of Young Bengal. Pyarichand Mitra and Radhanath Sikdar has published "monthly periodicals" for spreading female education. Beside this they also established "society for the acquisition of general knowledge".

Q. 246. What were the two controversial matters published in the first issue of Parthenon?

Ans. The Parthenon was published in 1830. The two controversial matters published in the first issue were (i) The administration joined the traditionalists in stifling the Parthenon because this paper had voiced Indian opposition to imperialist misrule. (ii) The Young Bengal agitated for trial by Jury, Indianisation of administration, freedom of the press and opposed the naked form of exploitation.

Q. 247. Why was Derozio compelled to leave the Hindu School?

Ans. It was alleged that Derozio and his disciples were involved in different anti-Hindu activities and they were also all out to criticise the administrative malpractices of the Company. As a result Derozio became eyesore to both the

conservative class and the Government. So the circumstances compelled him to leave the Hindu School.

Q. 248. Write the name of a European gentleman who made selfless donation to the cause of education of the Bengalees.

Ans. The European gentleman was David Hare who donated a lot for the sake of education of the Bengalees. He was attached with so many renowned educational institutions to develop the education of Bengalees at that time.

Q. 249. What was Radhakanta Dev's attitude to English Education ?

Ans. Radhakanta Dev was the President of the then religious organisation. But he was in favour of English education and women's education. He had a great interest in western science and culture. Though he was the strong supporter of establishing Sanskrit College but he was not against western literature.

Q. 250. Who had formed the Academic Association and when ? What was its function ?

Ans. In 1828, Academic Association was formed as the first debating society in Bengal by Derozio and his disciples. In this association different issues relating to life philosophy, society, religion and politics were used to be discussed and debated. Derozio was the President, Umacharan Bose was the Secretary and David Hare was the visitor of it.

Q. 251. In which year was the Hindu Vidyalaya established ? Mention the names of at least two of the founders.

Ans. In 1817, Hindu Vidyalaya was established in Calcutta for providing good education for the sons of the Hindu gentlemen. David Hare and Rammohan were the two founders of Hindu Vidyalaya.

Q. 252. Mention the names of some important persons amongst the founders of the Hindu Vidyalaya.

Ans. David Hare, Lt. Francis Irvin, Radhakanta Dev, Ram Kamal Sen, Vaidyanath Mukherjee were the eminent

persons who were closely connected with the foundation of the Hindu Vidyalaya.

Q. 253. How was David Hare related to the Hindu Vidyalaya ?

Ans. David Hare was one of the founder of Hindu Vidyalaya. He realised that western education and modern science is essential for the better education of the society. He acted as the superintendent for controlling the administration of this Vidya. In 1825 he was the member of administrative organisation.

Q. 254. From which year to which year Derozio taught in the Hindu College ?

Ans. In 1826 on 1st May Derozio was appointed as the fourth teacher in Hindu College. He taught History and English literature to the students. He continued his profession as a teacher in this institution for 5 years (1826 to 1831).

Q. 255. How was the relation between Raja Rammohan Roy and the Hindu Vidyalaya ?

Ans. The Hindu Vidyalaya in so far as its foundation and administration are concerned had to depend upon the conservative class led by Radha Kanta Dev. Rammohan one of the entrepreneurs of the institution was not included in the committee of the Vidyalaya. Since he earned the epithet of anti-Hindu for his Social reformatory activities, and his new religious ideas. But his attitude of the conservative class did not intimidate his spirit. He spread out his helping hand for the betterment of the institution directly.

Q. 256. Who was Alexander Duff ?

Ans. Alexander Duff was a Christian missionary who came to Calcutta in 1830. He advocated the promotion of English education combined with the Christian theology.

Q. 257. Mention two educational Institution as set up by Alexander Duff.

Ans. In 1830 on 13th July, Duff established his first institution known as General Assembly's Institution. He

established another institution in 1843, the General Assembly's Institution and the Free Church Institution merged to form the present Scottish Church College.

Q. 258. Why did the missionaries lay emphasis upon the secondary and higher education in the initial stage of their enterprise in education ?

Ans. The missionaries under the leadership of Alexander Duff held that the middle class and aristocratic class should be educated in English pattern. So that they should be converted for strengthening the British imperialism, so they gave importance on secondary and higher education.

Q. 259. What is the significance of the Charter Act of 1813 ?

Ans. The Charter Act of 1813 is a milestone in the history of Indian education. This act has formally declared that education for the Indian people would be financed by the Government showing that the Government instead of the policy of non-interference assumed the responsibility of education of the people of India.

Q. 260. Mention the two parts regarding education in the clause 43 of the Charter Act of 1813 of the East India Company.

Ans. In the pressure of public demand in clause 43 of the Charter Act of 1813 East India Company introduced the two issues in the agreement for expansion of education in India. The first part it to set a new life of Indian literature and improvement of education and encourage the learned person second part to spread out the science and culture among the native people.

Q. 261. What is the full name of G.C.P.I.

Ans. The full name of G.C.P.I. is the General Committee of Public Instruction.

Q. 262. In which year and why was G.C.P.I. formed ?

Ans. In 1823 the G.C.P.I. was formed. It was formed for the improvement of education and to improve the morality of the people at that time with the money granted by the

Charter Act of 1823. The purpose of G.C.P.I. was to utilise the money of 1 Lakh rupee in education.

Q. 263. What ways and means were adopted by the G.C.P.I. to encourage learning ?

Ans. The G.C.P.I. had been spending the money earmarked for education to set up schools appoint lecturers, revive ancient learning, introduce western science provide translation and grant rewards to pandits. Thus G. C. P. I. can encourage learning among the people.

Q. 264. What did Bentinck declare in 1829 ?

Ans. In 1829, Bentinck declared that the Government policy would be to introduce English as the state language of India.

Q. 265. What do you mean by oriental and occidental controversy ?

Ans. Among the orientalist and occidental members of the G.C.P.I. a controversy arose for the explanation of the term education, educated and the medium of instruction in education. This controversy is known as oriental and occidental controversy.

Q. 266. Name few orientalist scholar.

Ans. Warren Hastings, Minto, William Jones were some of the orientalists. Mr. Princep was the leader of the group.

Q. 267. Name a few occidentalists.

Ans. Charles Grant, Wilber force and Raja Rammohan were some of the occidentalists. Alexander Duff was one of the supporters of this group.

Q. 268. Who was Macaulay ?

Ans. Lord Macaulay came to India as the member of the Council of the Governor General. Lord Bentinck appointed him as the Chairman of the General Committee of Public Instruction.

Q. 269. What is meant by Macaulay minute ?

Ans. In 1835 on 2nd February. Macaulay has published his famous minute for discussing the educational policy.

Lord Bentinck requested Lord Macaulay to give his views officially in the matter relating to education around, which rose the controversy between the oriental and occidental groups.

Q. 270. In which year was Macaulay's Minute accepted ? What was its outcome in the field of education ?

Ans. Lord Bentinck has accepted Macaulay's Minute in 1885 on 7th March. He said that the objective of state aid to education would be to promote the study of European literature and sciences. Hence financial aid would be devoted to the spread of English education. Oriental classics and cultural heritage were pushed back to a minor rank of importance.

Q. 271. What is meant by Downward Filtration Theory : (C.U.85)

Ans. The occidentalists unequivocally declared that the Government should not be responsible for educating all the people of the country. Only the middle class people and the upper class of the society would be educated. They in turn would educate the mass. Education would be filtered down to the mass for the top. This is the downward filtration theory. The objective of education was the production of clerks for the Government service.

Q. 272 Who was William Adam ?

Ans. William Adam was a philanthropic Christian Missionary. He acted as the editor of few journals. He was interested in conducting an investigation into the prevailing system of education of this country.

Q. 273. What was meant by Adam's Report ?

Ans. The three reports as submitted by William Adam between the year 1835 to 1838 after a thorough investigation the then existing educational system of Bengal are known as Adam's report.

Q. 274. Who surveyed the state of indigenous education in Bengal in early 19th century ? In which year were his reports submitted ?

Ans. Rev. William Adam had surveyed the state to indigenous education in Bengal. He submitted his report in 1829 and 1834, but his proposal for assessment of indigenous education has been rejected.

Q. 275. What were the areas surveyed in Rev. Adam's second and third report.

Ans. The second report of Rev. Adam's reflected an intensive sample study of data collected from Natore police station area of Rajshahi district. Adam's third report was based on an extensive study of thing in representative districts viz. Murshidabad, Birbhum, Burdwan, Tirhut and south Behar.

Q. 276. Why is the third report of Adam considered as very significant ?

Ans. The third report of Adam is significant since it contained Adam's own recommendations for the improvement of the conditions prevalent in education of Bengal.

Q. 277. What types of schools were the Tols and the Madrassas ?

Ans. The higher educational institution for the Hindu and Muslims were the Tols and the Madrassas. The main objective of these institutions was to train-up some Pandits and Maulavis.

Q. 278. What types of school were the Pathsalas and the Maktabas ?

Ans. The Pathsalas and the Maktabas were the elementary indigenous schools for the Hindus and the Muslims. The curriculum followed in these institutions were three R's (Reading, Writing, Arithmetic).

Q. 279. What was the fate of Adam's report ?

Ans. Adam's valuable report fell flat on Government's policy. Bentinck did not wait for Adam's report being submitted. Before submission of the report Bentinck declared his educational policy which absolutely ignored the mass education.

Q. 280. Why and when was the Bengal British India Society formed ?

Ans. The Young Bengal Group formed the Bengal British India Society in 1843 for the Indian interest. The society was the mouthpiece of the Young Bengal for protesting against foreign rule.

Q. 281. What is Wood's Despatch ? Why is it called so ?

Ans. In the mid 19th century the necessity of establishing a complete education system with proper gradations and with one university the British Parliament renewed the Charter in 1853. So in 1854 under the chairmanship of Charles Wood this was incorporated in the Despatch of 1854. It is called so after the name of Charles Wood.

Q. 282. What has been abbreviated into D.P.I. ?

Ans. D. P. I. stands for Directorate of Public Instructions. One who is in charge of that Directorate is called Director of Public Instruction.

Q. 283. By whom and why was the appointment of D. P. I. recommended ?

Ans. Wood's Despatch of 1854 recommended the establishment of department of Public Instruction for bringing about a state control in the whole educational system.

Q. 284. What is meant by Grant-in-aid ?

Ans. The financial help as tendered by the Government to the non-governmental institutions in terms of certain specific condition is known as grant-in-aid.

Q. 285. What were the recommendation of the Wood's Despatch regarding University education ?

Ans. The Wood's Despatch recommended the establishment of three universities in Calcutta, Bombay and Madras in 1857 to act as affiliating and examining agency.

Q. 286. What was the most important part of Stanley's Despatch ?

Ans. The Stanlay's Despatch of 1859 directed that in addition to the land revenue education cess at a fixed rate would be enacted from the people and the cess money would be spent for primary education.

Q. 287. In which year and why was Stanlay's Despatch necessary ?

Ans. In 1859 Stanlay's Despatch was felt necessary because the mutiny of 1857 raised some suspicion in the minds of the people. The frightened rulers apprehended that the Government's intervention in education might have been one of the causes of the rebellion. Lord Stanlay the first Secretary of State for India then ordered implementation with certain modification.

Q. 288. Who are called the three pillars of Bethune School ?

Ans. Madan Mohan Tarkalankar, Ramgopal Ghosh and Dakshinananarayan Mukhopadhyay were known as three pillars of Bethune Balika Vidyalaya.

Q. 289. What is Vidyotshahini Sabha ?

Ans. Kaliprosanna Sinha, one of the luminaries of the 19th Century founded this Vidyotshahini Sabha for the free intellectual pursuits of the men of letters of that time, this Sabha conducted different lectures on selected topics. It also patronised actively the publication of Vidyotshahini Patrika. This Sabha was also a mouth piece of social reforms of the time.

Q. 290. Mention the objectives and the main initiators of the Tattwabodhini Sabha and Patrika.

Ans. Debendranath Tagore was the main initiator of the Tattwabodhini Sabha. This Sabha was founded in 1839. The objectives of this Sabha were (i) development of learning (ii) Research, (iii) Public debates on Sastra. This Sabha also started its own journal. Tattwabodhini Patrika which served a brilliant and much valued socio academic purpose.

Q. 291. Why was the Tattwabodhini Sabha founded ?

Ans. Tattwabodhini Sabha was founded for the development of learning with the discussion of religion, science and archaeology.

Q. 292. Who founded the Tattwabodhini Pathshala, when and why ?

Ans. Maharshi Debendranath Tagore had founded the Tattwabodhini Pathshala in 1840 with the object of imparting to the boys religious education. Later on arrangement was made for English education in this Pathshala.

Q. 293. What is Vidyadarshan ?

Ans. Vidyadarshan was periodical Magazine of 19th century conducted by Akshay Kumar Dutta. This Patrika aimed at promoting the expressibility of Bengali language through holding different discussion on different subjects and would provide translations of books of science ethics and History. It would also fight against malpractice in Indian life.

Q. 294. Why was Hindu College Pathshala set up ?

Ans. The organisers of the Hindu College set up Hindu College Pathshala in 1840 with the objectives of conducting studies on oriental and occidental subject in Bengali language.

Q. 295. Which year and at what age the title of Vidyasagar was conferred upon Iswarchandra ?

Ans. In 1838 at the age of 18. Iswarchandra received proficiency rewards and was honoured with the title of Vidyasagar.

Q. 296. Who is the author of Varna Parichaya. Give the year of first publication of Varna Parichaya, Part I ?

Ans. Iswarchandra Vidyasagar is the author of Varna Parichaya. In 1855 the first publication of Varna Parichaya Part-I was published. Before it his friend Madan Mohan Tarkalankar had published 'Sishu Siksha' for primary education.

Q. 297. Why was Varna Parichay important ?

Ans. It was important because it was an ideal primer in

Bengali language. This book has nicely followed the principles of proceeding from simple, concrete to complex. It was an aid to people for mastery of Bengali literature.

Q. 298. What are Upakramanika and Vyakaran Kaumudi ?

Ans. Vidyasagar wrote these two grammar books Upakramanika and Vyakaran Kaumudi for the simplification of Sanskrit language.

Q. 299. What was the name of that institution set up by Vidyasagar for the promotion of Bengali language and literature ?

Ans. In 1836 Vidyasagar set up Bangla Bhasa Sahitya Unnayan Samity. It was an institution for the promotion of Bengali language and literature. Iswar Gupta and Akshay Kumar Dutta were his co-workers in this respect.

Q. 300. What was the relation between Vidyasagar and Sanskrit College ?

Ans. Vidyasagar was the living spirit of Sanskrit College. First he was a student then a teacher and last of all he became the principal of the college. In 1846 he was appointed as an Assistant Secretary of the Governing body of the College. He acted as a principal of the institution from 1851 to 1858.

Q. 301. Who was the founder of Normal School ?

Ans. Vidyasagar had founded the Normal School for training of the teacher. In 1855 he became successful in his own plan for the foundation of Normal School.

Q. 302. Who had established Metropolitan Institution and why ?

Ans. In 1859 few friends of Vidyasagar founded Calcutta Training School with the help of Vidyasagar. This school later became Hindu Metropolitan Institution in 1864. The purpose is to teach all the individual child.

Q. 303. What is Neeldarpan ?

Ans. Neeldarpan is a Bengali Drama composed by Dinabandhu Mitra. It is a drama of social protest and exposure

of the indigo crisis at that time. Madhusudan Dutta translated Neeldarpan into English.

Q. 304. When and why was the National Council of Education formed ?

Ans. In the year 1906 on 12th March the National Council of Education had been formed. Sri Gurudas Banerjee, Rabindranath Tagore, Sri Rashbehari Ghosh were the initiators for planning education in this Council. The aim of this institution was to serve science, technical and literary education for the development of national consciousness.

Q. 305. Which year the National School first established ?

Ans. In 1905 on 9th November a public meeting was held for establishing the National School with the leadership of Subodh Chandra Mullick. He donated one lakh rupee for establishing National School.

Q. 306. Mention the memorable contributions of Sri Syed Ahmed.

Ans. Sri Syed Ahmed wanted to infuse a revivalism in the Muslim Community by reforming Islamic religious rituals, by fighting superstitions and by spreading Modern Western Education amongst the Muslims. So he founded Anglo-Oriental College.

Q. 307. Who founded the Anglo-Oriental College ? What is the present status of the institution ?

Ans. Sir Syed Ahmed founded the Anglo-Oriental College at Aligarh. The present status of the institution is Aligarh University.

Q. 308. When and with what ideal was the Bolepur Brahmacharyashram established ?

Ans. In 1901 on 22nd December, Rabindranath Tagore has established the Bolepur Brahmacharyashram. He was greatly influenced by the ancient Rishis. He desired the

students to order their life as the students in ancient India had done in the Tapavanas.

Q. 309. What was the first Indian Education Commission and when was this formed?

Ans. The first Indian Education Commission was formed under the Chairmanship of W. W. Hunter in 1842. So this Commission is known as Hunter Commission.

Q. 310. What were the most important recommendations of Hunter Commission in respect of the administration of primary education?

Ans. The Hunter Commission recommended that the responsibility of primary education should be borne by the local self-governing bodies. The local cess should be kept separately for financing primary education.

Q. 311. What are the different curriculum of secondary education mentioned in Hunter Commission?

Ans. Hunter Commission mentioned two equivalent courses of studies in secondary curriculum 'A' course for academic studies and 'B' course for vocational studies.

Q. 312. Who founded the Bhagwat Chatuspathi and why?

Ans. In 1895, Satish Chandra Mukhopadhyay established the Bhagwat Chatuspathi for educating the students in accordance with national aspirations.

Q. 313. What were the objectives of Bhagabat Chatuspathi?

Ans. Its objective was not only to preach spiritual knowledge but also study of Western Science, philosophy and industrial arts. The plan was to develop it as a free Hindu Public Religious Institution.

Q. 314. Give the names of two of the persons who used to deliver lectures at the meeting of the Dawn Society.

Ans. The different persons who used to deliver lectures at the meeting of Dawn Society were Mahendralal Sarkar and Jadunath Sarkar.

Q. 315. By whom and when the Dawn Society was set up ?

Ans. In 1897 Satish Chandra published the magazine 'Dawn' as the mouth-piece of the Bhagavat Chatuspathi. Later on it became the Dawn Society as an action wing of the Dawn magazine.

Q. 316. What are the objective of Dawn Society ?

Ans. The objective of Dawn Society were – i) impartation of religious and moral instruction to college students and ii) supplementation of even the ordinary academic education given in colleges.

Q. 317. Who founded the Benaras Central Hindu School ?

Ans. Annie Besant in co-operation with Pandit Madan Mohan Malavya started the Central Hindu School in Benaras. Later on in 1915 this institution was known as Hindu University.

Q. 318. What were the contents of the Carlyle Circular ?

Ans. The eminent persons like Subodh Mallick, Bipin Pal, C. R. Das, resolved to boycott the ensuing M. A. examinations of Calcutta University. Thus students resolved to boycott colleges six months ahead. In this context the Chief Secretary Carlyle issued a circular warning the students that they would be punished if they join the boycott movement. This was the Carlyle Circular.

Q. 319. Mention the names of three front ranking leaders of the national educational movement.

Ans. The three front ranking leaders of the national education movement are Lala Lajpat Rai, Balgangadhar Tilak and Bipin Chandra Pal.

Q. 320. What were the three aspects of boycott under the triple boycott scheme ?

Ans. The three aspects of boycott movement were boycott of Law courts. Foreign goods and Foreign education. The

students responded the triple boycott scheme by leaving schools and colleges.

Q. 321. In which year and why was Vivekananda Society formed ?

Ans. In 1902 Sister Nivedita established the Vivekananda Society. She tried to arouse the nation. She joined the Bengal revolutionaries after her meeting with Aurobinda.

Q. 322. What main types of vocational and technical institution were recommended by Abbot Wood Committee ?

Ans. According to Abbot Wood Committee the vocational and technical education should be imparted through "Delhi polytechnic school. It was the first national vocational institution.

Q. 323. Why was the Zakir Hussain Committee formed and when ?

Ans. In 1938 Zakir Hussain Committee was formed to discuss the "Harijan" education. His report was adopted at the Haripura session of the Congress.

Q. 324. What was the function of the Zakir Hussain Committee ?

Ans. The function of the Zakir Hussain Committee was to develop education through a definite craft. Dr. Zakir Hussain also mentioned that free and compulsory education should be provided for 7 years and the craft-based education will cover the remuneration of teachers i. e. self-sufficient education will be developed.

Q. 325. What is the meaning of Nai Talim ?

Ans. Basic education is known as Nai Talim. It means that the new system of craft passed education which develop self-sufficiency among the individual child.

Q. 326. In which year and where was the first conference on basic education of Gandhiji was held ?

Ans. In October, 1937 the first conference on basic education was held in Wardha. Gandhiji was the president

of that conference. As it was held in Wardha so it is known as Wardha Scheme.

Q. 327. By whom and why was Indian Association formed ?

Ans. Surendra Nath Banerjee with his colleague Ananda Mohan Bose, Sivnath Shastri founded the Indian Association in 1876. The purpose was to organise the public opinion based upon solidarity above from all sorts of regionalism and communalism.

Q. 328. Who was the first Indian Vice-Chancellor of Calcutta University ?

Ans. Sir Gurudas Banerjee was appointed as the first Indian Vice Chancellor of the Calcutta University.

Q. 329. Who formed the University Education in 1902 ?

Ans. In 1902, Lord Curzon wanted to regularise the higher education and formed the University Education Commission.

Q. 330. What was the policy of Lord Curzon regarding secondary education ?

Ans. Curzon's policy regarding secondary education was the qualitative expansion which automatically led to control.

Q. 331. In which year did Asutosh Mukherji accept the Vice Chancellorship of Calcutta University for the first time ?

Ans. In 1906, Asutosh Mukherjee accepted the Vice Chancellorship of Calcutta University for the first time and continued his service from 1906 to 1914 and again from 1919 to 1923.

Q. 332. By what other name is the Calcutta University Commission known and why ?

Ans. The other name of Calcutta University Commission is Sadler Commission. It was called so for Michael Sadler had formed the Commission to control higher education.

Q. 333. What is S. N. D. T ?

Ans. Prof. D. K. Karve had established a girl's school at Poona in 1889. The consciousness in regard to national education that spread in Poona by Bal Gangadhar Tilak enable Karve's institution to become a University in 1916. Later on the donation from Thackersay family led this to be named as S. N. D. T.

Q. 334. In which part of the Indian Constitution has universal primary education been referred to ?

Ans. With the inspiration from the introduction of compulsory primary education in the State of Boroda, Mr. Gokhale tabled on 19th March 1910, a motion in the Central Assembly for free and compulsory primary education.

Q. 335. What were the main proposition of Gokhale's primary education bill ?

Ans. The main proposition of Gokhale's bill were :

(i) Compulsion he introduced in areas where 33% of children were already in school. (ii) Parents would stand responsible for sending children of 6-10 yr. group to school. (iii) The local bodies might impose a cess to meet 1/3 of the cost while the Govt. would bear 2/3.

Q. 336. What is wastage in education ?

Ans. Wastage means the premature withdrawal of children from schools before completion of the primary school course.

Q. 337. Where and when was the Osmania University set up ?

Ans. In 1918 in Hyderabad Osmania University was set up.

Q. 338. What are the two portion of the Wood Abbot report ?

Ans. In 1937 a report was placed with the joint petition of Mr. S. H. Wood and Mr. A. Abbot. The report is published in two parts : (i) General education will be continued for all individual in secondary level. (ii) Technical & vocational education.

Q. 339. Which Education Commission has proposed rural universities ?

Ans. In 1943, Radhakrishnan Commission had proposed rural universities. According to the scheme of basic education, the Commission extended the concept of rural Universities.

Q. 340. Under whose Chairmanship was the University education Commission formed after independence ?

Ans. After independence on 4th November 1948 a University Education Commission was formed under the chairmanship of Dr. Sarbapalli Radhakrishnan.

Q. 341. What is meant by affiliating type University ?

Ans. The University which affiliates different colleges regarding teaching is known as affiliating University.

Q. 342. What is the difference between I.I.T. and I.T.I ?

Ans. I.I.T. stands for Indian Institute of Technology and I.T.I. is the name of the Industrial Training Institute which had been set up after the recommendations of Abbot Wood report.

Q. 343. In which year the University of Calcutta set up ?

Ans. The Calcutta University was established in the year 1857 according to the recommendation of Woods Despatch.

Q. 344. When and why was Mudaliar Commission set up ?

Ans. Mudaliar Commission was set up in 1952 for a thorough enquiry into secondary education and for the structural pattern of secondary curriculum.

Q. 345. Which subjects constituted the core recommended by the Mudaliar Commission ?

Ans. The compulsory core subjects recommended by the Mudaliar Commission are (i) Mother Language or Regional

Language. (ii) Two more elective language including English (iii) General science. iv) General Mathematics. (v) Social study. (vi) Craft.

Q. 346. Mention the Seven streams of the Mudaliar Scheme of Higher Secondary education.

Ans. Mudaliar Commission proposed the introduction of seven stream like Humanities, Science, Technical, Agriculture, Commerce, Home science and Fine arts.

Q. 347. Give the full title of the Kothari Commission report and mention its year.

Ans. The All India Education Commission was formed in 1964-66 with 17 members and Professor D.S. Kothari was the President of that Commission. According to his name the education Commission is known as Kothari Commission.

Q. 348. For how long had the Kothari Commission worked ?

Ans. The Kothari Commission had been worked from 1964 to 1966, but it was first effective in the year 1976.

Q. 349. What is meant by Plus two stage ?

Ans. In Kothari Commission, the secondary education will be continued for 10 years and higher secondary education for two years. Plus two stage means that the higher secondary education with two different streams—general and vocational.

Q. 350. Mention the language scheme of the Kothari Commission ?

Ans. The language scheme of Kothari Commission are (i) in lower Primary stage mother tongue or regional language will be the medium.

(ii) In primary stage mother tongue will be English or Hindi.

(iii) In secondary and higher secondary level mother tongue is English or Hindi and another modern language.

(iv) In higher education mother tongue will be one language.

Q. 351. Which do you think as correct "Education" for work or work for education ?

Ans. According to Kothari Commission' 88 the correct word is education for work. So in Secondary level work education has been introduced.

Q. 352. What is work education ?

Ans. Work education means to help the individual to acquire knowledge through practical experiences.

Q. 353. How many universities are there in West Bengal ?

Ans. In West Bengal there are nine universities—
(i) Calcutta University, (ii) Jadavpur University, (iii) Rabin-
dra Bharati University (iv) Vidyasagar University, (v) Viswa-
bharati University, (vi) Kalyani University, (vii) North
Bengal University.

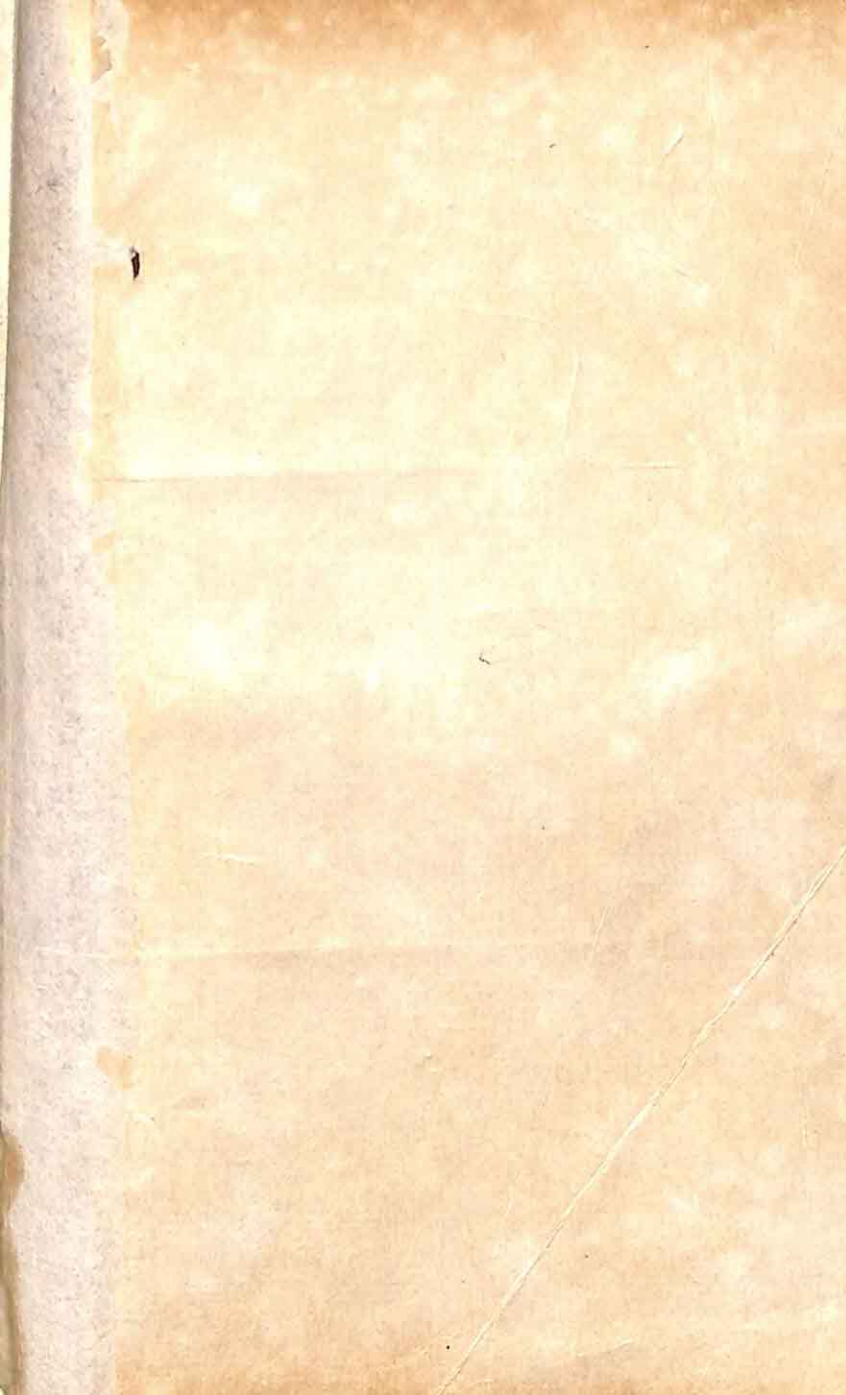
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